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THE

MONTHLY REVIEW;

OR

LITERARY JOURNAL,

ENLARGED:

From JANUARY to APRIL, *inclusive.*

M,DCCC,XVI.

With an APPENDIX.

“*Laus nova nisi oritur, etiam vetus amittitur.*” P. SYRUS.

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ERRATA in Vol. LXXIX.

Page 2. l. 11. from bott. put a comma after '*year.*'
109. l. 19. for '*worlds*' r. *world.*
162. l. 33. insert *the* before '*decayed.*'
215. l. 16. for '*they,*' r. *our readers.*
305. *note*, for '*Mr.*' r. *Mrs.*

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For JANUARY, 1816.

Art. I. *Personal Narrative of Travels to the Equinoctial Regions of the New Continent*, during the Years 1799—1804. By Alexander de Humboldt, and Aimé Bonpland; with Maps, Plans, &c. Written in French by Alexander de Humboldt, and translated into English by Helen Maria Williams. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 651. 1l. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

We have already had occasion to notice, (N. S. Vols. lxvi. and lxvii.) at considerable length, one of the productions of this enterprising traveller on the subject of America, and more particularly of Mexico. He and the companion of his journey, M. Bonpland, have adopted the plan, not of comprizing in a general work the mass of their observations and adventures, but of presenting to the world, from time to time, a specific treatise on detached subjects; and while the volumes which have hitherto engaged our attention related to the population, the manners, the trade, and other topics of a political nature in Spanish America, several publications on the botany, the mineralogy, and the trigonometrical surveys of that part of the world have since issued from the pen of this indefatigable investigator. The great drawback on the value of his essay on New Spain was the almost total want of method which it betrayed; and which, coupled with the disadvantage of a hasty translation, made it a toil to the English reader to peruse that which, under better management, might have been rendered one of the most entertaining books of the age. We took up the volumes now before us, in the hope that such objections would not be found to exist on so plain a subject as a narrative of travels and personal observations: but we are compelled to extend our former censure to this detail also, without any qualification, except with regard to the fair translator, who has performed her task with much more care than her predecessor in the same career.

Baron de Humboldt begins by an animated picture of the anxiety which he felt, from his earliest years, to travel into distant regions; and this desire was probably the stronger in consequence of his being educated in the interior of Germany, and knowing nothing of maritime discoveries but by report.

'The objects with which we are acquainted only by the animated narratives of travellers have a particular charm; imagination wanders with delight over what is vague and undefined; and the pleasures of which we are deprived seem possessed of a fascinating power, compared to which all we daily feel in the narrow circle of sedentary life appears insipid. The taste for herborisation, the study of geology, rapid excursions to Holland, England, and France, with the celebrated Mr. George Forster, who had the happiness to accompany Captain Cook in his second expedition round the globe, contributed to give a determined direction to the plan of travels, which I had formed at eighteen years of age. No longer deluded by the agitation of a wandering life, I was anxious to contemplate nature in all its variety of wild and stupendous scenery; and the hope of collecting some facts useful to the advancement of science incessantly impelled my wishes towards the luxuriant regions spread under the torrid zone. As my personal situation then prevented me from executing the projects by which I was so powerfully influenced, I had leisure to prepare myself during six years for the observations I purposed to make on the New Continent, to visit different parts of Europe, and explore the lofty chain of the Alps, the structure of which I might afterwards compare with that of the Andes, of Quito, and of Peru.'

Like other ardent speculators, the Baron was doomed to experience a variety of disappointments. He visited Italy in 1795, and was on the point of making a more extensive survey of it in 1797, when the alarms of war obliged him to relinquish the project: — he was consoling himself for these disappointments by the hope of crossing the Mediterranean in the next year, and luxuriating at his leisure among the antient monuments of Egypt and Syria, when the sudden extension of the war to these distant regions rendered it altogether inexpedient to prosecute his undertaking; — and a similar mortification occurred to him, from a different cause, with regard to the expedition of discovery intended to be fitted out in France in 1798 under Captain Baudin. In spite of repeated efforts, therefore, it was not until the summer of 1799 that he found it practicable to sail from Europe. In the beginning of June in that year M. Bonpland and he embarked at Corunna on board a small Spanish vessel, the Pizarro, bound for Caraccas, with orders to stop at Teneriffe, and to remain there as long as the naturalists might judge necessary: but, Spain being at that time at war with us, the philosophic voyagers were under perpetual alarm from our cruizers, an alarm which unluckily continued during both this and their subsequent expeditions.

'The 8th June, at sun-set, we descried from the mast-head an English convoy, which sailed along the coast, steering towards the south-east. In order to avoid it, we altered our course during the night. From this moment no light was permitted in the great cabin, to prevent our being seen at a distance. This precaution, used on board all merchant-vessels, and prescribed in the regulations of the packet-boats of the royal navy, was extremely irksome to us during the passages we made in the course of the five following years. We were constantly obliged to make use of dark-lanterns to examine the temperature of the water, or read the divisions on the limb of the astronomical instruments. In the torrid zone, where twilight lasts but a few minutes, our operations ceased almost at six in the evening. This state of things was so much the more displeasing to me, as from the nature of my constitution I never was subject to sea-sickness, and feel an extreme ardour for study during the whole time I am at sea.'

The passage from Corunna to Teneriffe offered nothing remarkable: but, when stepping on a strange shore, Baron Humboldt describes himself (p. 88.) as experiencing the most animated transport on being at last enabled to enter on a range of discovery. 'No language,' he says, 'can express the delight felt by a naturalist on touching, for the first time, a shore that is not European. His attention is attracted by such a diversity of objects that he can scarcely give a definite character to his impressions, for at every step he thinks he discovers some new production.' A considerable part of the first volume is occupied by an account of a journey to the top of the Peak; an abstract of which we should with pleasure have laid before our readers, were it not immeasurably tedious, and made up of a variety of scientific observations put together in the least attractive form; and, as if the space of 100 pages in the first of these volumes had not been sufficient to describe this excursion, the author returns to it (p. 156.) in the second. — One of the most interesting passages in the long detail about Teneriffe relates to the botanic garden.

'The establishment of a botanical garden at Teneriffe is a very happy idea, on account of the double influence which it may have on the progress of botany, and on the introduction of useful plants into Europe. For the first idea of it we are indebted to the Marquis de Nava, whose name deserves to be recorded with that of M. Poivre, and who, habitually engaged in doing good, has made a noble use of his fortune. He undertook, at an enormous expence, to level the hill of Durasno, which now rises as an amphitheatre, and which was begun to be planted in 1795. The Marquis thought that the Canary islands, from the mildness of their climate and geographical position, afforded the most suitable place for naturalising the productions of the two Indies, and serving as a repository to habituate the plants gradually to the colder temperature of the south of Europe. In fact, the plants of Asia, Africa, and South America, may easily be brought to Orotava; and in order to introduce the bark-tree into Sicily, Portugal, or Grenada, it should be first planted at Durasno, or at Laguna, and the shoots of this tree may afterwards be transported into Europe from the Canaries. In happier times, when maritime wars shall no longer interrupt communication, the garden of Teneriffe may become extremely useful with respect to the great number of plants, which are sent from the Indies to Europe; for ere they reach our coasts, they often perish, on account of the length of the passage, during which they inhale an air impregnated with salt water. These plants would meet at Orotava with the care and climate necessary to their preservation. The keeping of the botanic garden having become every year more expensive, the Marquis de Nava has ceded it to the government. We found in it a well-informed gardener, who had been brought up under Mr. Aiton, director of the royal garden at Kew. The earth is raised in terraces, and watered by a natural spring. It has a view of the island of Palma, which appears like a castle in the midst of the ocean.'

We have in another passage a table of the progressive increase of the population of the Canary islands:

Archipelago of the Canaries.	Year 1678.	Year 1745.	Year 1768.	Year 1790.
Teneriffe - -	49,112	60,218	66,354	70,000
Fortaventura -		7,382	8,863	9,000
Grand Canary -	20,458	33,864	41,082	50,000
Palma - - -	13,892	17,580	19,195	22,600
Lanzerota - -		7,210	9,705	10,000
Gomera - - -	4,373	6,251	6,645	7,400
Ferro - - -	3,297	3,687	4,022	5,000
Total - -		136,192	155,866	174,000

The vintage at Teneriffe varies from 20 to 24,000 pipes, of which nearly the half is exported. The following paragraph may serve to account for the very opposite statements given by different travellers respecting the appearance of the Canaries:

'These islands have undergone the same fate as Egypt, the Crimea, and many other countries, respecting which travellers, who are anxious to elevate and surprise by contrasts, have been extravagant both in their praise and their blame. Some, landing at Orotava, describe Teneriffe as the garden of the Hesperides, and celebrate the amenity of the climate, the fruitfulness of the soil, and the richness of the cultivation; others, forced to sojourn at Santa Cruz, behold nothing in these Fortunate Islands but a country naked, barren, and inhabited by a stupid and miserable race. It appeared to me, that in this archipelago, as in all mountainous and volcanic countries, Nature has been very unequal in the distribution of her gifts. The Canaries are generally deficient in water; but wherever there are springs, artificial irrigations, or plentiful rains, the soil is highly fertile. The lower class of the people is laborious; but its industry is more active in distant colonies, than at Teneriffe, where it meets with obstacles, which a wise administration might progressively remove. Emigration would be diminished, if the uncultivated demesne lands were distributed among private persons, those which are annexed to the *majorats* of the great families were sold, and feudal rights were gradually abolished.'

The voyagers left the road of Santa Cruz on the 25th of June, and shaped their course towards Cumana, the most eastern part of Spanish America. So constant are the winds in this latitude, that, though the Pizarro was not a good sailer, the width of the Atlantic, 900 leagues, was traversed in three weeks. Short, however, as the time was, it proved sufficient to engender a malignant fever among the crew, in consequence not so much of the heat of the season, as of the miserable management on board, and the confined state of the air between decks. They had not an ounce of bark; fumigation was not once attempted; and the ship's surgeon, like a true disciple of Sangrado, seemed to know not any remedy but bleeding, the fever having, according to him, no other origin than 'heat and corruption of the blood!'

'The 8th of July, a sailor, who was near expiring, recovered his health from a circumstance that is worthy of being mentioned. His hammock was so hung, that there were not ten inches between his face and the deck. It was impossible to administer the sacraments in this situation; for, agreeably to the custom aboard Spanish vessels, the viaticum ought to be carried by the light of tapers, and followed by the whole crew. The patient was removed into an airy place, near the hatchway, where a small square berth had been formed with sail-cloth. Here he was to remain till he died, which was an event expected every moment; but passing from an air extremely heated, stagnant, and filled with miasms into fresher and purer air, which was renewed every instant, he gradually revived from his lethargic state. His recovery dated from the day when he quitted the middle deck; and as often in medicine the same facts are cited in support of systems diametrically opposite, this recovery confirmed our doctor in his ideas of the inflammation of the blood, and the necessity of bleeding, evacuating, and all the asthenic remedies. We soon felt the fatal effects of this treatment; and wished more than ever to reach the coasts of America.' —

'From the time we entered the torrid zone, we were never wearied with admiring every night, the beauty of the southern sky, which, as we advanced towards the south, opened new constellations to our view. We feel an indescribable sensation, when, on approaching the equator, and particularly on passing from one hemisphere to the other, we see those stars, which we have contemplated from our infancy, progressively sink, and finally disappear. Nothing awakens in the traveller a livelier remembrance of the immense distance by which he is separated from his country, than the aspect of an unknown firmament. The grouping of the stars of the first magnitude, some scattered nebulæ, rivalling in splendor the milky way, and tracts of space remarkable for their extreme blackness, give a particular physiognomy to the southern sky. This sight fills with admiration even those, who, uninstructed in the branches of accurate science, feel the same emotion of delight in the contemplation of the heavenly vault, as in the view of a beautiful landscape, or a majestic site. A traveller has no need of being a botanist, to recognize the torrid zone on the mere aspect of its vegetation; and without having acquired any notions of astronomy, without any acquaintance with the celestial charts of Flamstead and de la Caille, he feels he is not in Europe, when he sees the immense constellation of the Ship, or the phosphorescent clouds of Magellan, arise on the horizon. The heaven, and the earth, every thing in the equinoctial regions, assumes an exotic character.'—

'When we begin to fix our eyes on geographical maps, and read the narratives of navigators, we feel for certain countries and climates a sort of predilection, for which we know not how to account at a more advanced period of life. These impressions, however, exercise a considerable influence over our determinations; and from a sort of instinct we endeavour to connect ourselves with objects, on which the mind has long been fixed as by a secret charm. At a period when I studied the heavens, not with the intention of devoting myself to astronomy, but only to acquire a knowledge of the stars, I was agitated by a fear unknown to those who love a sedentary life. It seemed painful to me to renounce the hope of beholding those beautiful constellations, which border the southern pole. Impatient to rove in the equinoctial regions, I could not raise my eyes towards the starry vault without thinking of the Cross of the South.—The pleasure we felt on discovering the southern Cross was warmly shared by such of the crew as had lived in the colonies. In the solitude of the seas, we hail a star as a friend, from whom we have long been separated.—

'The two great stars which mark the summit and the foot of the Cross having nearly the same right ascension, it follows hence, that the constellation is almost perpendicular at the moment when it passes the meridian. This circumstance is known to every nation, that lives beyond the tropics, or in the southern hemisphere. It has been observed at what hour of the night, in different seasons, the Cross of the South is erect, or inclined. It is a time-piece that advances very regularly near four minutes a day, and no other group of stars exhibits, to the naked eye, an observation of time so easily made. How often have we heard our guides exclaim in the savannahs of Venezuela, or in the desert extending from Lima to Truxillo, "Midnight is past, the Cross begins to bend!" How often those words reminded us of that affecting scene, where Paul and Virginia, seated near the source of the river of Lataniers, conversed together for the last time, and where the old man, at the sight of the southern Cross, warns them that it is time to separate.'

The part of the coast which first caught the eye of the impatient travellers was flat, and corresponded little with their expectation of meeting at once with elevated rocks and bold promontories. No person on board had previously visited the spot which they now approached, or was able to give any information respecting it: yet all were eager to make conjectures, and to assign to the objects before them the forms that were uppermost in their own imagination. Some took mounds of sand for Indian huts; others discerned herds of goats many miles off; while a third party asserted that they saw all the way to the lofty mountains of the interior.

'At the moment we were preparing to go on shore, we perceived two canoes sailing along the coast. Again we fired a gun as a signal for these; and though we had hoisted Spanish colours they drew near with distrust. These canoes, like all those made use of by the natives, were constructed of the single trunk of a tree; and in each were eighteen Guayqueria Indians, naked to the waist, of very tall stature. They had the appearance of great muscular strength, and the colour of their skin was something between a brown and a copper-colour. Seen at a distance, motionless in their attitudes, and projected on the horizon, they might have been taken for statues of bronze. We were so much the more struck with this aspect, as it did not correspond with the ideas we had formed from the accounts of travellers of the characteristic features and extreme weakness of the natives. We afterward learnt, without passing the limits of the province of Cumana, the great contrast that exists between the physiognomy of the Guayquerias and that of the Chaymas and the Caribs. Notwithstanding the intimate ties, which appear to unite the whole of the American nations as belonging to the same race, several tribes do not the less differ from each other in the height of their stature, their complexion more or less tawny, and their looks, which in some express tranquillity and mildness, in others a sinister mixture of melancholy and ferocity.

'When we were near enough to hail them in Spanish, the Indians threw aside their mistrust, and came straight on board.'—

'The Guayquerias belong to that tribe of civilized Indians who inhabit the coasts of Margaretta, and the suburbs of the city of Cumana. Next to the Caribs of Spanish Guyana, they are the finest race of men in Terra Firma. They enjoy several privileges, because from the earliest times of the conquest they remained faithful friends to the Castilians. The king of Spain names them in his public acts, " his dear, noble, and loyal Guayquerias." The Indians of the two canoes we had met had left the port of Cumana during the night. They were going in search of timber to the cedar forests, which extend from Cape San Jose farther than the mouth of Rio Carupano. They gave us some fresh cocoa-nuts, and very beautifully coloured fish of the chætodon genus *. What riches to our eyes were contained in the canoes of these poor Indians! Broad spreading leaves of vijao †, covered bunches of plaintains, the scaly cuirass of an armadillo ‡, the fruit of the calabash tree, crescentia cujete, used as a cup by the natives, the productions most common in the cabinets of Europe, had a peculiar charm for us, because they reminded us that, having reached the torrid zone, we had attained the end toward which our wishes had been so long directed.

' The master of one of the canoes offered to remain on board the Pizarro as coasting pilot §. He was a Guayqueria of an excellent disposition, sagacious in his observations, and led by an unceasing curiosity to notice the productions of the sea, as well as the plants of the country. By a fortunate chance, the first Indian we met on our arrival was the man whose acquaintance became the most useful to us in the course of our researches. I feel a pleasure in recording in this itinerary the name of Carlos del Pino, who, during the space of sixteen months, attended us in our course along the coasts, and into the inland country.'

The season of the arrival of the travellers in Spanish America was by no means favourable to health: but they had the good fortune to pass it in the town of Cumana, which, though hot, is considered as highly salubrious. They had here also the gratification of meeting in the governor with a man of much more information than is generally found in an official station in Spanish America: he expressed great satisfaction on receiving a visit from men of science, and made use of chemical terms with a familiarity which equally surprized and delighted the travellers. They were aware that, notwithstanding the sanction obtained from the supreme government at Madrid, their abode in the Spanish colonies would be attended with innumerable inconveniences, if they did not succeed in inspiring some personal interest in those who governed these extensive countries; and therefore it was doubly gratifying to find a votary of science in the person of a protector, and to ascertain that, in one province at least, no other motives for their voyage would be suspected than those of liberal curiosity.

' We anchored opposite the mouth of the river Manzanares on the 16th of July, at break of day; but we could not land till very

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' * Bandoulières. † Heliconia bibai.

‡ Dasypus, *cachicamo*. § Practico.'

late in the morning, because we were obliged to wait the visit of the officers of the port. Our eyes were fixed on the groups of cocoa-trees that border the river, and the trunks of which, more than sixty feet high, towered over the landscape. The plain was covered with tufts of cassias, capers, and those arborescent mimosas, which, like the pine of Italy, extend their branches in the form of an umbrella. The pinnated leaves of the palms were conspicuous on the azure of a sky, the clearness of which was unsullied by any trace of vapours. The sun was ascending rapidly toward the zenith. A dazzling light was spread through the air, along the whitish hills strewed with cylindric cactuses, and over a sea ever calm, the shores of which were peopled with alcatras*, egrets, and flamingoes. The splendour of the day, the vivid colouring of the vegetable world, the forms of the plants, the varied plumage of the birds, every thing announced the grand aspect of nature in the equinoctial regions.'—'The Indian pilot led us across his garden, which rather resembled a copse than a piece of cultivated ground.'—'We crossed the suburb of the Indians, the streets of which are very regular, and formed of small houses, quite new, and of a pleasing appearance. This part of the town had just been rebuilt, on account of the earthquakes, which had laid Cumana in ruins eighteen months before our arrival. Scarcely had we passed, on a wooden bridge, the Manzanares, which contains a few *bavas*, or crocodiles of the smaller species, when we every where perceived the traces of this horrible catastrophe; new edifices were rising on the ruins of the old.'—

'We disembarked our instruments toward the evening, and we had the pleasure to find, that none had been damaged. We hired a spacious house, the situation of which was favourable for astronomical observations. We enjoyed an agreeable coolness, when the breeze arose; the windows were without glasses, and even wanted those paper panes, which are often the substitutes of glass at Cumana. The whole of the passengers aboard the Pizarro left the vessel, but the recovery of those who had been attacked by the fever was very slow. We saw some, who a month after, notwithstanding the care bestowed on them by their countrymen, were still extremely weak and reduced. Hospitality, in the Spanish colonies, is such, that a European who arrives, without recommendation, or pecuniary means, is almost sure of finding assistance, if he lands in any port on account of sickness. The Catalans, the Gallicians, and the Biscayans, have the most frequent intercourse with America. They there form as it were three distinct corporations, which exercise a remarkable influence over the morals, the industry, and commerce of the colonies. The poorest inhabitant of Siges or Vigo is sure of being received into the house of a Catalan or Gallician pulpero†, whether he arrivet at Chili, or at the Philippine Islands. I have seen the moss affecting instances of these attentions rendered to unknown persons, during whole years, and always without a murmur.'—

'* Brown pelican, of the size of a swan. † A retail dealer.'

'The city of Cumana, properly speaking, occupies the ground that lies between the castle of St. Antonio, and the small rivers of Manzanares and Santa Catalina.—The town has no remarkable edifice, and the frequency of earthquakes forbids such embellishments. It is true, that strong shocks occur less frequently in a given time at Cumana, than at Quito, where we nevertheless find sumptuous and very lofty churches. But the earthquakes of Quito are violent only in appearance; and, from the particular nature of the motion and of the ground, no edifice there is overthrown. At Cumana, as well as at Lima, and in several cities placed far from the mouths of burning volcanoes, it happens, that the series of slight shocks is interrupted after a long course of years by great catastrophes, that resemble the effects of the explosion of a mine.'

Though the population of the town of Cumana has never been accurately ascertained, it seems to be somewhat above 20,000. The women, particularly natives, are abundantly fruitful: but the mortality among infants is prodigious, on account of the careless manner of bringing them up, and the bad custom of giving them green and indigestible fruit. In their excursions to the neighbouring country, the travellers had the satisfaction of finding that no foundation existed for the notion prevalent in northern states, that cows under the torrid zone are ill fitted to yield milk. The truth is that the ruminating animals of Europe become with ease habituated to tropical climates, provided that they find plenty of water and pasture; and the chief precaution necessary in such a country to keep milk fresh is to put it, not in wooden calabashes, but in earthen vessels.

'As the inhabitants of Cumana prefer the coolness of the sea-breeze to the appearance of vegetation, they are accustomed to no other walk than that of the open shore. The Spaniards, who are accused in general of no predilection for trees, or the warbling of birds, have transported their prejudices and their habits into the colonies. In Terra Firma, Mexico, and Peru, it is rare to see a native plant a tree merely with the view of procuring himself shade; and if we except the environs of the great capitals, walks bordered with trees are almost unknown in these countries.'—'The banks of the Manzanares are very pleasant, and shadowed by mimosas, erythrinas, ceibas, and other trees of gigantic growth. A river, the temperature of which, in the season of the floods, descends as low as twenty-two degrees (of the centigrade thermometer), when the air is at thirty and thirty-three degrees, is an inestimable benefit, in a country where the heats are excessive during the whole year, and where it is so agreeable to bathe several times in the day. The children pass, as it were, a part of their lives in the water: the whole of the inhabitants, even the women of the most opulent families, know how to swim; and in a country where man is so near the state of nature, one of the first questions asked at the first meeting in the morning is, whether the water is cooler than the preceding evening. The mode of bathing is various enough. We every evening visited a very respectable society, in the suburb of the Guayquerias. In a fine moon-light night, chairs were placed in the water; the men and women were lightly clothed, as in some baths of the north of Europe; and the family and strangers, assembled in the river, passed some hours in smoking segars, and in talking, according to the custom of the country, of the extreme dryness of the season, of the abundant rains in the neighbouring districts, and particularly of the luxuries, of which the ladies of Cumana accuse those of the Caraccas and the Havannah. The company were under no apprehensions from the bavas, or small crocodiles, which are now extremely scarce, and which approach men without attacking them. These animals are three or four feet long. We never met with them in the Manzanares, but with a great number of dolphins, which sometimes ascend the river in the night, and frighten the bathers by spouting water.'

As the most alarming circumstance in the situation of Cumana is the frequent occurrence of earthquakes, Baron de Humboldt enters at great length into disquisitions on the origin and causes of these convulsions: but in this discussion our limits do not permit us to follow him. The records of Cumana scarcely go back beyond a century, in consequence both of the carelessness of the government, and of the devastations committed among papers in that scorching climate by the termites or white ants: but enough has happened within the memory of man to excite the most serious apprehensions respecting these concussions. On the 21st of October 1766 the city of Cumana was entirely destroyed, the whole of the houses being overwhelmed in the space of a few minutes; and the alarm did not end with this explosion, dreadful as it was; shocks less terrific indeed, though sufficiently strong to create farther damage, being repeated at frequent intervals for many months. The inhabitants lived during this anxious period under tents pitched in the streets: but, so familiar does man become by custom with those hazards which at first appear terrific, that the Cumanans began to rebuild their houses as soon as the shocks had so far diminished as to recur only once in a month.

'Tradition states, that in the earthquake of 1766, as well as in another very remarkable one in 1794, the shocks were mere horizontal oscillations; it was only on the disastrous day of the 14th of December 1797, that for the first time at Cumana the motion was felt by the raising up of the ground. More than four-fifths of the city were then entirely destroyed; and the shock, attended by a very loud subterraneous noise, resembled, as at Riobamba, the explosion of a mine at a great depth. Happily the most violent shock was preceded by a slight undulating motion, so that the greater part of the inhabitants could escape into the streets, and a small number only perished of those who had assembled in the churches. It is a generally received opinion at Cumana, that the most destructive earthquakes are announced by very feeble oscillations, and by a hollow sound, which does not escape the observation of persons habituated to this kind of phænomenon. In this fatal moment, the cries of *misericordia, tembla, tembla**, are every where heard; and it is very rarely that a false alarm is given by a native. Those who are most fearful, attentively observe the motions of dogs, goats, and swine. The last of these animals, endowed with delicate olfactory nerves, and accustomed to turn up the earth, give warning of approaching danger by their restlessness and their cries.—

'At Cumana, half an hour before the catastrophe of the 14th of December 1797, a strong smell of sulphur was perceived near the hill of the convent of St. Francis; and on the same spot a subterraneous noise, which seemed to proceed from the south-east to the north-west, was heard the loudest. At the same time flames appeared on the banks of the Manzanares, near the hospice of the Capuchins, and in the gulf of Cariaco, near Mariguitar. This last phænomenon, so extraordinary in a country not volcanic, is pretty frequent in the Alpine calcareous mountains near Cumanacoa, in the valley of Bordones, in the island of Margaretta, and amidst the *Llanos* or savannahs of New Andalusia. In these savannahs, flakes of fire rise to a considerable height; they are seen for hours together in the dryest places; and it is asserted that, on examining the ground which furnishes the inflammable matter, no crevice is to be found. This fire, which resembles the sources of hydrogen, or *Salse*, of Modena, or what is called the Will o' the Wisp of our marshes, does not burn the grass; because no doubt the column of gaz, which developes itself, is mixed with azot and carbonic acid, and does not burn at its basis.'

The travellers were exposed to great annoyance from the surprize excited among the inhabitants of these unlettered countries by the sight of their physical and astronomical instruments. To look through a telescope or a microscope, and still more to witness the effects of galvanism on the motions of a frog, were objects of the highest ambition to a colonist; so that, whenever Baron de Humboldt and his companion changed their abode, they were liable to a renewal of solicitations from persons whom it would have been unkind and perhaps imprudent to refuse: but they were most fatigued when their visitors had acquired such a smattering of the "new philosophy," (which in the Spanish colonies is the name given to Astronomy and Physics,) as to be enabled to teaze them with

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'* Mercy! the earth trembles.'

questions. It was amusing, however, to see with what disdain these sagacious people regarded the naturalists, on learning that, among all their books, they had not the *Spectacle de la Nature* by Abbé Pluche, nor the *Cours de Physique* of Lafond. These, and a couple of other books of equal eminence, have been translated, and form the fashionable vehicles of information to the majority of the inhabitants of Spanish America: nobody is deemed learned who cannot quote them in the translations; and it is only in the great towns, such as Mexico and Lima, that the names of Haller, Cavendish, and Lavoisier begin to take the place of those which have enjoyed popular celebrity for the last fifty years.

Having adverted to astronomical observations made in the neighbourhood of Cumana, M. de Humboldt subjoins some very proper remarks on a different topic:

'If the situation of our house at Cumana was highly favourable for the observation of the stars and meteorological phænomena, it obliged us to be sometimes the witnesses of afflicting scenes in the day. A part of the great square is surrounded with arcades, above which is one of those long wooden galleries, which are common in warm countries. This was the place where slaves, brought from the coast of Africa, were sold. Of all the European governments, Denmark was the first, and for a long time the only power, that abolished the trade; notwithstanding which, the first negroes we saw exposed for sale had been landed from a Danish slave-ship. What are the duties of humanity, national honour, or the laws of his country, to a man stimulated by the speculations of sordid interest?

'The slaves exposed to sale were young men from 15 to 20 years of age. Every morning cocoa-nut oil was distributed among them, with which they rubbed their bodies, to give their skin a black polish. The persons who came to purchase examined the teeth of these slaves, to judge of their age and health; forcing open their mouths as we do those of horses in a market. —

'The greater the impression which the first sale of negroes made on us, the more we congratulated ourselves on living among a people, and on a continent, where this sight is rare, and where the number of slaves is in general very inconsiderable. The number in 1800 did not exceed six thousand in the two provinces of Cumana and Barcelona, when at the same period the whole population was estimated at one hundred and ten thousand inhabitants.'

After these different extracts, critical justice requires us to state that they afford a very favourable specimen of the work. We have selected them from the most entertaining passages, and brought them together from very different portions of the volumes, because we should have imposed a very unpleasant task on the patience of our readers if we had obliged them to form their estimate of the Narrative by studying the dry scientific details with which it is replete. Baron de Humboldt enlarges in his introduction (p. 43.) on the allowances that ought to be made for the details of the investigators of a newly peopled region: its solitudes, he says, seem destined only for the display of vegetable life, and must evidently be much less interesting than the history of our species under a civilized government; and in America, he adds, we must look for no monuments either of the arts, or of the recollections which are dear to the admirers of heroic exploits: — mankind presenting there only a few remnants of indigenous tribes, or an uniformity of manners and institutions which have been transplanted by European colonists to a foreign shore. Yet, though we acknowlege the justice of these remarks, and would make an ample allowance for their application in the present case, we cannot help thinking that the volumes before us might have been prepared for the public with much greater care. A number of scientific details and minute observations, such as those already mentioned relative to the Peak of Teneriffe, should have been banished from the text of a 'Personal Narrative,' and presented only indirectly to the reader's attention in the form of notes, or of an appendix. In a work which, from its subject, must necessarily be dry, and levy a considerable tax on the attention of the reader, the greatest pains should have been taken to avoid perplexity and relieve fatigue by a clear division and subdivision of materials. The mind might thus have been enabled to fix itself, in the first instance, on topics connected with personal adventure, local description, or moral observation; all of which are attractive in their nature, and tend to pave the way for entering on the less inviting pages of scientific disquisition. Even if the reader had been inclined to pass over the latter entirely, he might still have felt satisfied with the book had due pains been taken to exhibit the narrative in a distinct shape: but, at present, he finds the whole intermingled, and is obliged to search for the agreeable part by wading through an endless variety of wearisome details. He is not even directed in his investigation by so simple a guide as a circumstantial table of contents; and the following summary, meagre as it is, forms all the clue that is given to a volume of nearly 300 pages.

'CHAPTER I.

Preparations.—Instruments.—Departure from Spain.—Landing at the Canary Islands.
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'CHAPTER II.

Stay at Teneriffe.—Journey from Santa Cruz to Orotava.—Excursion to the Top of the Peak of Teyde.'

We cannot but regret that Miss Williams, who has executed the office of translator in a style much superior to that which is generally seen in this department of literary labour, did not deem herself authorized to take the liberty of new-modelling the arrangement of the materials. She has introduced a preface marked equally by taste and sensibility; and we think that the publication would have gained largely on being re-cast by her hands.

Notwithstanding these animadversions on the composition of M. de Humboldt, we are perfectly ready to acknowlege the value of his discoveries, and to consider them as forming an important addition to our stock of knowlege on topics of geography, natural history, and natural philosophy. We repeat, as in our former articles on his publications, that it is most gratifying to observe a gentleman applying his command of time and property to liberal pursuits; and setting at nought all considerations of personal convenience, when put in comparison with the acquisition of useful information, or the hope of conferring benefits on his species. Of the difficulties with which he had to contend, some idea may be formed from the ensuing passages, in the Introduction, with which we conclude our extracts:

'The maritime war, during our abode in America, having rendered the communications with Europe very uncertain, we found ourselves compelled, in order to diminish the chance of losses, to form three different collections. Of these, the first was embarked for Spain and France, the second for the United States and England, and the third, which was the most considerable, remained almost constantly under our eyes. Towards the close of our expedition, this last collection formed forty-two boxes, containing an herbal of six thousand equinoctial plants, seeds, shells, insects, and, what had hitherto never been brought to Europe, geological specimens from the Chimborazo, New Grenada, and the banks of the river of the Amazons.

'After the journey to the Orinoco, we left a part of these objects at the island of Cuba, in order to take them on our return from Peru to Mexico. The rest followed us during the space of five years, on the chain of the Andes, across New Spain, from the shores of the Pacific Ocean to the West Indian seas. The conveyance of these objects, and the minute care they required, occasioned us such embarrassments as would scarcely be conceived, by those even who have traversed the most uncultivated parts of Europe. Our progress was often retarded by the three-fold necessity of dragging after us, during expeditions of five or six months, twelve, fifteen, and sometimes more than twenty loaded mules, exchanging these animals every eight or ten days, and superintending the Indians who were employed in leading so numerous a caravan. Often, in order to add to our collections of new mineral substances, we found ourselves obliged to throw away others, which we had collected a considerable time before. These sacrifices were not less painful than the losses which we accidentally suffered. Sad experience taught us but too late, that from the sultry humidity of the climate, and the frequent falls of the beasts of burden, we could preserve neither the skins of animals too hastily prepared, nor the fishes and reptiles placed in phials filled with alcohol.—Notwithstanding some obstacles, and the expense occasioned by the carriage of these articles, I had reason to applaud the resolution I had taken before my departure, of sending to Europe the duplicates only of the productions we had collected. I cannot too often repeat, that when the seas are infested with privateers, a traveller can be sure only of the objects in his own possession. A very small number of the duplicates, which we shipped for the ancient continent during our abode in America, were saved; the greater part fell into the hands of persons unknown to science. When a ship is condemned in a foreign port, boxes containing only dried plants or stones, far from being sent to the scientific men to whom they are addressed, remain consigned to oblivion. Some of our geological collections taken in the Southern Ocean had, however, a happier fate. We were indebted for their preservation to the generous activity of Sir Joseph Banks, President of the Royal Society of London, who, amidst the political agitations of Europe, has unceasingly laboured to strengthen the ties by which are united the scientific of all nations.'

We again attend the Baron in the next article.

ART. II. *Researches concerning the Institutions and Monuments of the ancient Inhabitants of America*, with Descriptions and Views of some of the most striking Scenes in the Cordilleras; written in French by Alexander de Humboldt, and translated into English by Helen Maria Williams. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 739. 1l. 6s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

IN making our report of this second part of M. de Humboldt's work, namely the researches concerning the monuments in America, and the descriptions of scenes in the Cordilleras, we have again to regret the want of arrangement which marked the former part; the different subjects following each other with very little connection; and the only specification of the contents of the book being an index, which, however correctly executed, by no means supplies the place of a methodical *table des matieres.* It would certainly not have been difficult to class in succession the topical descriptions,

scriptions, and to exhibit, in a kind of series suggested by the nature of the subject, the different monuments illustrative of the antient manners of the Indians.

As we are not believers, to any great extent, in the attainments of the early inhabitants of America, our attention, in reading these volumes, has been chiefly directed to the descriptions of romantic scenery. Out of the sixty-nine plates composing the splendid collection published on the Continent, twenty have been selected, and reduced from the folio to the octavo size. Of these the most striking are the Romantic Bridges of Icononzo: A View of Chimborazo, the highest of Mountains: The Cascade of Regla near Mexico: The Bridge of Ropes near Penipé: The Volcano of Jorullo; and the Lake of Guatavita. The remaining engravings are less interesting; they consist of hieroglyphics, mythological signs, exhibitions of ruins, and such other objects as possess importance only to those who are converts to the notion that the inhabitants of America had made, at the time of the Spanish invasion, such a progress in civilization as intitled their history to the study of a philosophic inquirer.

The bridges of Icononzo are formed of rocks thrown together by the hand of nature, and cover a torrent which runs at the surprizing depth of nearly 300 feet below:

> 'The torrent seems to flow through a dark cavern, whence arises a lugubrious noise, caused by the numberless flights of nocturnal birds that haunt the crevice, and which we were led at first to mistake for those bats of gigantic size so well known in the equinoctial regions. Thousands of them are seen flying over the surface of the water. The Indians assured us, that these birds are of the size of a fowl, with a curved beak and an owl's eye. They are called cacas; and the uniform colour of their plumage, which is a brownish gray, leads me to think, that they belong to the genus of the caprimulgus, the species of which are so various in the Cordilleras. It is impossible to catch them, on account of the depth of the valley; and they can be examined only by throwing down rockets to illumine the sides of the crevice.'

Nothing is more deceptive than the eye in contemplating the height of mountains, the impression produced arising much more from circumstances connected with the surrounding scenery than from the absolute elevation of the mountain. The Peak of Teneriffe and the formidable Mowna Roa (in Owhy-hee) are, from their insular situation, the largest in appearance of those giants of our globe, but are in fact greatly inferior in actual elevation to many of the Cordilleras, and particularly to Chimborazo. The ground that surrounds the base of the latter is of itself about 9000 feet above the level of the sea, all of which is to be taken in deduction from the effect produced by the aspect of the mountain. Still its appearance is exceedingly grand, in consequence both of its magnitude and of the circular form of its summit:

> 'On the shore of the South Sea, after the long rains of winter, when the transparency of the air has suddenly increased, we see Chimborazo appear like a cloud at the horizon; it detaches itself from the neighbouring summits, and towers over the whole chain of the Andes, like that majestic dome produced by the genius of Michael Angelo, over the antique monuments which surround the Capitol.'—
>
> 'On a narrow ridge, which rises amidst the snows on the southern declivity, MM. Bonpland, Montufar, and myself, attempted to reach, not without danger, the summit of Chimborazo. We carried instruments to a considerable height, though we were surrounded by a thick fog, and very much incommoded by the great tenuity of the air. The point where we stopped to observe the inclination of the magnetic needle was more elevated than any yet attained by man on the ridge of mountains; it was more than eleven hundred metres higher than the top of Mont Blanc, which the most enlightened and most intrepid of travellers, M. de Saussure, had the satisfaction of reaching, after struggling against difficulties still greater than those we had to conquer near the summit of Chimborazo. These laborious excursions, the narratives of which generally excite the attention of the public, offer but a very small number of results useful to the progress of science; the traveller finds himself on ground covered with snow, in a stratum of air, the chemical mixture of which is the same as that of the lower regions, and in a situation in which delicate experiments cannot be made with all the exactness requisite.'

We regret that the measures used throughout this work have not been reduced in the translation to an English standard. A comparative table is given at the end, but it is a perpetual exercise of the attention of the reader to bring down foreign measures to that scale which alone is familiar to him. A French metre is somewhat more than 39 English inches.

Cotopaxi, though not equal in height to Chimborazo, is a mountain of stupendous magnitude, and calculated, from its volcanic character, to excite the most awful impressions:

> 'Cotopaxi, the summit of which is represented in the tenth plate, is the loftiest of those volcanoes of the Andes, which at recent epochs have undergone eruptions. Its absolute height is five thousand seven hundred and fifty-four metres (two thousand nine hundred and fifty-two toises); it is double that of Canigou; and consequently eight hundred metres higher than Vesuvius would be, were it placed on the top of the Peak of Teneriffe. Cotopaxi is also the most dreadful volcano of the kingdom of Quito,

Quito, and its explosions the most frequent and disastrous. The mass of scoriæ, and the huge pieces of rock thrown out of this volcano, which are spread over the neighbouring valleys, covering a surface of several square leagues, would form, were they heaped together, a colossal mountain. In 1738, the flames of Cotopaxi rose nine hundred metres above the brink of the crater. In 1744, the roarings of the volcano were heard as far as Honda, a town on the borders of the Magdalena, and at the distance of two hundred common leagues. On the 4th of April, 1768, the quantity of ashes ejected by the mouth of the Cotopaxi was so great, that in the towns of Hambato and Tacunga day broke only at three in the afternoon, and the inhabitants were obliged to use lanterns in walking the streets. The explosion which took place in the month of January, 1803, was preceded by a dreadful phenomenon, the sudden melting of the snows that covered the mountain. For twenty years before, no smoke or vapour, that could be perceived, had issued from the crater; and in a single night the subterraneous fire became so active, that at sunrise the external walls of the cone, heated, no doubt, to a very considerable temperature, appeared naked, and of the dark colour which is peculiar to vitrified scoriæ. At the port of Guayaquil, fifty-two leagues distant in a straight line from the crater, we heard, day and night, the noises of the volcano, like continued discharges of a battery; we distinguished these tremendous sounds even on the Pacific Ocean, to the south-west of the island of Puna.

'Cotopaxi is situate to the south-east of the city of Quito, at the distance of twelve leagues, between the mountain of Ruminnavi; the summit of which, rugged with small separate rocks, extends itself like a wall of enormous height; and Quelendanna, which enters the boundary of the eternal snows.—

'The form of Cotopaxi is the most beautiful and regular of the colossal summits of the high Andes. It is a perfect cone, which, covered with an enormous layer of snow, shines with dazzling splendor at the setting of the sun, and detaches itself in the most picturesque manner from the azure vault of Heaven. This covering of snow conceals from the eye of the observer even the smallest inequalities of the soil; no point of rock, no stony mass, penetrates this coating of ice, or breaks the regularity of the figure of the cone. The summit of Cotopaxi resembles the Sugar-loaf (Pan de azucar) which terminates the Peak of Teyde; but the height of its cone is six times the height of that of the great volcano of the Island of Teneriffe.'

The city of Mexico is noticed, (vol. i. p. 49.) but it is needless for us to dwell at present on its description, because we gave an ample account of it (M.R. Jan. 1812,) in our report of the Political Essay on New Spain. One of the most striking objects in its neighbourhood is the cataract of Tequendama; which, though not the loftiest, is perhaps the most remarkable of all cataracts, if we take into the account the three circumstances of height, quantity of water, and beauty of surrounding scenery. The falls of the Rhine at Lauffen, and still more the falls of the St. Lawrence near Niagara, display an enormous quantity of water: but the descent is not in either case very great; while the Alpine cataracts, on the other hand, are lofty without possessing considerable stores of water. The river which is projected at Tequendama is a full stream of fifty yards in width; and the depth of fall, divided indeed in the middle, is between 500 and 600 feet. M. de H. says:

> 'I succeeded, but not without danger, in carrying instruments into the crevice itself, at the foot of the cataract. It takes three hours to reach the bottom by a narrow path (*camino de la Culebra*) which leads to the ravine of La Povasa. Although the river loses in falling a great part of its water, which is reduced into vapours, the rapidity of the lower current forces the observer to keep at the distance of nearly one hundred and forty metres from the basin dug out by the fall. A few feeble rays of noon fall on the bottom of the crevice. The solitude of the place, the richness of the vegetation, and the dreadful roar that strikes upon the ear, contribute to render the foot of the cataract of Tequendama one of the wildest scenes that can be found in the Cordilleras.'

A bridge of ropes in Peru is generally formed of the fibrous part of the roots of the *Agave Americana*, each rope being three or four inches in diameter, and fastened at either end to a clumsy frame-work or scaffolding. Small cylindrical pieces of bamboo are laid across the ropes, so as to form a foundation for a foot-passenger, the conveyance of carriages being out of the question in this part of the world. The bridge near Penipé, exhibited in a plate, is one hundred and twenty feet long, and seven or eight broad:

> 'All travellers have spoken of the extreme danger of passing over these rope bridges, which look like ribands suspended above a crevice or an impetuous torrent. This danger is not very great, when a single person passes over the bridge as quickly as possible, with his body leaning forward: but the oscillations of the ropes become very strong, when the traveller is conducted by an Indian who walks quicker than himself: or when, frightened by the view of the water which he sees through the interstices of the bamboos, he has the imprudence to stop in the midst of the bridge, and lay hold of the ropes that serve as a rail. A bridge of this kind lasts generally in good condition only twenty or five-and-twenty years. It is necessary, however, to renew some of the ropes every eight or ten years. But in these countries the police is so negligent, that we often see bridges, in which most of the pieces of bamboo are broken. On these old bridges travellers must proceed with great circumspection, to avoid holes, through which the whole

body might slip. A few years before my abode at Penipe, the rope-bridge of the Rio Chambo broke down all at once. This was owing to a very dry wind having succeeded long rains, in consequence of which all the ropes gave way at the same time. By this accident four Indians were drowned in the river, which is very deep and extremely rapid.'

Of all extraordinary circumstances, however, in the mode of carrying on communications between different parts of Peru, the most singular is that of a swimming postman. This unparalleled arrangement takes place during two days of the postman's course, while going down a part of the river Chamaya, and afterward a part of that of the Amazons. The former is not navigable on account of a great number of small cataracts.

'He wraps the few letters, of which he is the bearer every month, sometimes in a handkerchief, sometimes in a kind of drawers called guayuco, which he winds as a turban round his head. This turban contains also the great knife (*machette*), with which every Indian is armed, rather to cut his way through the forests, than as a weapon of defence.—

'In order to fatigue himself less in descending the river, he supports himself on a log of bombax or ochroma (*palo de valza*), trees of very light wood. When a ledge of rocks intersects the bed of the river, he lands above the cascade, crosses the forest, and re-enters the water when he sees no farther danger. He has no need of taking provision with him, for he finds a welcome in a great number of huts, surrounded with plantain trees, and situate along the banks of the river. Sometimes to render the journey more agreeable, he is accompanied by another Indian. The rivers, which mingle their waters with those of the Marannon above Pongo de Mayasi, are happily not infested with crocodiles; the savage hordes, therefore, almost all travel like the Peruvian postman. It is very seldom that letters are either lost or wetted during the passage from Ingatambo to the residence of the governor of Jaen. After the postman has rested a few days at Tomependa, he returns either by the *Paramo de Parcton*, or by the dangerous road which leads to the villages of San Felipe and Sagiqué, the forests of which abound in bark of the finest quality.'

These quotations contain, in our opinion, the most interesting parts of the present detail. To judge from the small extent of country described in the "Personal Narrative," it would appear that a large portion of the author's travels yet remains to be laid before the English reader; and we shall not fail to pay early attention to any work coming from so respectable a quarter. Let us hope, however, that it may be digested, and arranged in a manner calculated to avert a repetition of those strictures which we have felt it incumbent on us to pass on the volumes already translated.

Art. III. *Considerations on the present Political State of India;* embracing Observations on the Character of the Natives; on the Civil and Criminal Courts, the Administration of Justice, the State of the Land-Tenure, the Condition of the Peasantry, and the Internal Police of our Eastern Dominions: intended chiefly as a Manual of Instruction in their Duties, for the younger Servants of the Company. By Alexander Fraser Tytler, late Assistant-Judge in the Twenty-four Pergunnahs, Bengal Establishment. 2 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Black and Co. 1815.

We own that a pleasure is communicated to us which we know not well how to describe, when the posterity of a literary man inherit his literary passions, and engage in those pursuits which so peculiarly elevate us above the other creatures of this earth, form the most important distinction between one human being and another, and confer benefits of such extraordinary magnitude on the human race. We are still more delighted, when we find the son of a man who has attained a name in literature distinguish the morning of his life by displays of political virtue: because this, in the present state of the education and the administration of this country, is a far more rare and more important demonstration than that of literature itself. A government, which is carried on by *influence*, has a natural tendency to root political virtue out of the land, and to mould the business of education into a correspondent condition. *Influence* is chiefly created by political abuses: — but *influence* means that compliance with the will of the men who direct the operations of state, which is wrought in the minds of the powerful individuals of the country by bestowing on them undue shares of the nation's money. In proportion, therefore, as this *influence* operates, all the leading people are divested of political virtue, and placed under the action of motives to decry it. Besides, as these members of the community create the fashion, they turn the tide of favour to the cause of political depravity; political virtue is not only detested by all those who know that they are deprived of it, but the habit is acquired of representing it in odious and contemptible colours; and the common example of those, the splendour of whose condition is the greatest, averts the minds of the rising generation from cultivating a quality so little likely to recommend them. Servility, then, and a spirit of interested compliance, become the fashion.

These reflections have been excited by the hereditary talent and the political virtue displayed in the highly important and meritorious publication before us; the author of which is the son of Lord Woodhouselee, late Mr. Fraser Tytler, an eminent professor in the University of Edinburgh, afterwards elevated to the bench of Scotish judges, and who, at an early period of life, was distinguished as one of the authors of the popular work intitled *The Mirror*, and subsequently by several valuable productions of his maturer years. In the present volumes, Mr. Tytler has proposed to himself the task of giving us a true delineation of the practical effects of a particular government. It needs no words to satisfy the intelligent reader how highly it concerns those, whose happiness or misery depends on the practical effects of any government, (in other words, the subject-many, all over the surface of the globe,) to receive accurate information respecting this important subject; and the value of this information is greatly increased by its unfortunate rarity. The instruments of every government are interested in giving false conceptions of its practical effects, and in making them appear to be better than they really are; and when it is also considered that almost all rewards are in the hands of these same people to bestow, it is easy to see what influence they must possess for commanding the exertions of all those to whom advancement in life appears the first of objects. If this be the case in all states, reasons and causes exist which ensure it, to an extraordinary degree, under an administration placed in circumstances so very singular as those of the British in India. There, almost every Englishman is one of the instruments of government, and immediately concerned in the diffusion of laudatory accounts; or he is so completely dependant on such instruments, that he must take care to speak only as they are known to wish him to speak. We have no witnesses for the British public in India, while the witnesses for the government are its own servants; — and hence the loud concert of praises which is usually performed in its behalf, — hence the ignorance in which Englishmen in general remain, and the miserable prejudices which prevail, with regard to the affairs of India, — and hence the national conclusions on the subject are almost invariably founded on the delusions with which the interested parties have succeeded in occupying the public mind. Moreover, as no Englishmen in India, unless by rare exceptions, can give us any but the most flattering accounts, so the millions of the native inhabitants are deprived of the means of giving *any* accounts. The first great obstacle is their state of intellect, which is too little cultivated to be capable of describing the effects of any government: — in the next place, they speak a language of which we are ignorant: — in the third place, they are not yet intrusted with the use of a press; — and, in the fourth place, they are the subjects of an absolute government, and therefore must not say that it is any thing but good.

In describing the tendency which, from the nature of their situation, must exist in the minds of our countrymen in India to delude us with false reports of Indian affairs, we are far from supposing them to be peculiarly corrupt, or undeserving in other respects of the approbation to which the rest of us are commonly intitled; for, in truth, Englishmen at home yield the same obedience to the same impulse as often as they have a similar inducement. Besides, experience exhibits this important fact that the persons who are employed as instruments in conducting any set of institutions, or in the administration of any system of laws, usually grow enamoured of those institutions and laws. Custom operates within them as a second nature; a habit is acquired of contemplating with approbation the effects which those things produce; and, as the impression is incessantly repeated, at last it becomes insuperably strong. This propensity adheres to human nature in all, from the highest to the lowest of its operations. The mechanic in a manufactory regards the system of machinery to which he has been accustomed, as the best in the world; and as far as his power extends, he commonly resists the introduction of any thing better: — or the peasant, who, during a long life, has laboured with a rude and ill-constructed plough, would prefer it to the most perfect instrument in the world. Lastly, this propensity is most remarkable for its influence on human welfare in the case of *laws*, though here it has been, we imagine, least commonly observed. Yet it is astonishing how uniformly those men, whose lives are devoted to the administration of any system of laws, contract an admiration of it which constrains them to despise all other laws in the comparison.

It appears to us, then, that in his laudable undertaking to give the English people a faithful delineation of the practical effects of the government which they maintain in India, Mr. Fraser Tytler has been guided by great virtue, as well as by peculiar judgment. He has fixed at once on the characteristic circumstance, the *experimentum crucis*, that in which all the qualities of a government are immediately seen; viz. the condition of the lower orders, or the great and productive body of the community. Wheresoever the main body of the people enjoy plenty and security, are full of intelligence, free from all restraint except on hurtful actions, and exempt from political and religious prejudices, — in that place the government may, without a chance of mistake, be declared to be near the point of perfection. Wheresoever, on the other hand, this description is reversed, we can have no hesitation in pronouncing the government to be bad. This is a proposition so evident as scarcely to admit of proof, and so important as to surpass almost every other political maxim which can be framed: — yet that which ought to have stood at the very head of such axioms has rarely occurred in political discourse. Improvements in this master-science are now taking place so fast, however, that the case will be very different in time to come; and the condition of the people will henceforth be viewed as the true test of the qualities of their government, over the whole surface of the globe.

Already, as we have said, Mr. Fraser Tytler has become sufficiently acquainted with the laws of human society, to pitch on the condition of the bulk of the people, as the grand circumstance from which the character of the Indian government might be comprehensively inferred. We have had it drummed in our ears, with infinite perseverance and noise, that all the effects of it are excellent, to an almost unexampled degree: but here comes Mr. Fraser Tytler, who is too virtuous to flatter and too intelligent to be deceived, and he informs us, with irresistible proof, that the condition of the people under this sway is wretched in the extreme, and is not getting better. Yet the English government has now been operating in Bengal during upwards of fifty years, and in its most improved and highly celebrated form upwards of twenty years; and it will not be denied that, long before this time, it ought to have given some proofs of its excellent effects on the situation of the people.

In all countries, the principal part of the main body of the people are employed on the land; and in India the proportion of them is so very trifling who are *not* so employed, that, when we speak of the peasantry of the country, we may always be considered as talking of the whole of the lower orders in a mass. They are denominated in India by a peculiar term, *ryots*; and, when the circumstances of the ryots are mentioned by Mr. Fraser Tytler, the representation may be taken as applying to the aggregate population; except only the persons of property, who among the natives of India form a very small part. We shall now attend to some of his expositions.

At page 16. of his introduction, he says;

> 'Let it be remembered that the word of government has been pledged to support the ryots; and that *having once broken this promise*, there would be a merit in redeeming it. — The zemindars have shewn themselves every way unworthy of the confidence reposed in them. The country has not only decreased in value,

by their increasing mismanagement: but, such is now the extremity of wretchedness to which they have reduced the ryots, that gang-robbery, or *dacoity*, an evil too common in our Indian dominions, but *fostered of late years by the excessive misery and indigence of the peasantry*, has arisen to an alarming height, and begins to threaten the most serious consequences.'

Again, at page 96. of his first volume, he observes, speaking of the small proportion of the natives who possess any property:

'At present, in Bengal, wealth is divided among the zemindars or landholders; a few great merchants; the money-lenders; the officers of our public offices in every department; the servants of the zemindars; and a few petty traders.—The great body of the natives, viz. the peasants, artificers, manufacturers, and under-servants, *are miserably poor*.'

Then follows a favourite doctrine of the author, and a doctrine of unspeakable truth and importance: but which, unpropitiously situated as he has always been for its discovery, required in him a rare assemblage of the virtues of the head and the heart to be able clearly to perceive it, and cordially to embrace it: 'It is among these last,' says he, viz. the miserably poor peasants, artificers, manufacturers, and servants, '*that vice is generated*. These, in proportion as they are comfortable, happy, and independent, will be good: as they are oppressed and poor, they will be vicious.'—To the necessary connection between the misery of the main body of the people and their propensity to crime, or their happiness and tendency to virtue, he returns professedly at another part of the work. In the mean time, we mention it, as he does, only incidentally.—Again, at page 112., Mr. T. says, 'The condition of the peasants is, at present, *so miserable*, that the slightest improvement would be gladly accepted.' He also informs us, at page 324., that, 'in August 1769, a covenanted servant of the Company was appointed to each district, and styled a supervisor. These supervisors were ordered to attend to various particular heads of information,'—among which we shall specify the following:

'They were to fix the amount of what the zemindar received from the ryot, as his income or emolument; and in this the zemindars were said to exceed all bounds of moderation, and to take advantage of the insufficiency of the restrictions upon their conduct. The supervisors were, finally, to assure the ryots, that they would stand between them and the hand of oppression; that they would redress their wrongs; that the calamities they had suffered proceeded from an intermediate cause; and that, after paying the legal dues of government, they might rest secure in the enjoyment of the remainder.—Here was a solemn promise made, on the part of government, that they would protect the ryots against the oppression of the zemindars. How far this promise has been fulfilled, *the present state of the country, and the condition of the peasants,* fully shew.'

On this violation of faith towards the main body of the natives, the author dwells with peculiar emphasis on several occasions. A set of mischievous powers was given to the zemindars, with which they ought never to have been intrusted; and then we are told, says he, 'that government have pledged their word; and that no infringement of the new system can now take place. But it may be asked, whether there did not exist a previous promise and pledge, in the redeeming of which, our honour, as a nation, is most materially involved?'—True, indeed! and as important as true!

At page 359. the author thus proceeds:

> 'Were we ourselves to behold the extreme poverty and distress of the peasants, in consequence of the arrangements of the petty land-holders and under-farmers, we should be shocked with the extent of those evils resulting from the excessive subdivision of property. This is a system, which, conducted as it now is in India, calls loudly for redress; threatening, in its consequences, not the partial loss and impoverishment of some parts of the land, but *the general ruin of the country.*'

In Zillah Kishenagur, he adds, (p. 366.) in the year 1809, the situation of the ryots was really shocking. He then goes on to describe in what manner they had been visited by a series of bad crops, and thus continues:

> 'The effects of so many bad seasons on the ryots may be well conceived. They were not under the eye of the actual proprietors of the land, who, by pressing lightly upon them in their adversity, might have prevented their ruin: but under *Dur-Kotkinadars,* &c. who cruelly oppressed them to the utmost, themselves afraid of not being able to pay their revenue. The wretched ryots pushed their lands to the very utmost, and when no longer able to borrow money, they were compelled either to steal, in order to subsist their families, or fly their native villages to look for kinder masters. A native who has long been resident at a place, or perhaps been born there, must be very hard pushed before he will leave the village that has become so dear to him; and yet we shall see that, in this Zillah, whole villages were deserted,—the inhabitants flying they knew not where.'

As all the causes which produced this misery existed with little change of force throughout the greater part of the country, this instance must, in correct inference, be regarded as a sample of a great whole.

The subsequent passage furnishes the matter of volumes, and with it we must close the exhibition of proof on this head of inquiry. Mr. Tytler says, pp. 374, 375., 'It would be worthy the attention of a magistrate, or his assistants, during their circuits of the district, to take a particular account of the condition of the villages for four or five years back. — In the year 1810, I made an attempt of this kind, from which I select a few instances, which will be sufficient to explain my intention, and which present a fair specimen of the state of that part of the country in which I was employed.

'The village of Chundpore had, in the year 1808, not less than sixty houses: the lands in cultivation amounted to above two thousand *bigahs*. It has now three houses, and the whole of the land is over-run with jungle, and full of hogs.

'The village of Cola had, in 1808, a hundred houses, and five thousand *bigahs* of beautiful cultivation. It now contains forty houses, and the whole land cultivated is not above two hundred *bigahs*.

'The village of Jurampore, in the year 1808, had two hundred and fifty houses, and its cultivation extended to the whole lands of the village; viz. seven or eight thousand *bigahs*. There are now remaining five houses of respectable cultivators, and five or six huts, inhabited: the cultivation is reduced to four hundred *bigahs*. It will generally be found that the greatest desertion has taken place within the last few years: *oppression has rapidly increased*.

'The village of Khasipoor has now about fifty houses. It had, in 1803, above one hundred houses, and proportionate cultivation.

'The village of Beerpoor has now fifteen houses. It had, six years ago, fifty.

'The village of Tertoolberia has now 300 houses. In the year 1807 it had 500.'

Mr. T. discusses the causes of this deplorable state of things at great length, and we shall attend him, as far as we can, through his instructive details. In the mean time, he adduces one fact which, to all men "who have ears to hear," will speak a world of reflections.

'There is not an indigo planter, who has resided for any length of time among the people, who will not vouch for the truth of my description of the present condition of the peasants. But, to the magistrate, who resides invariably at his *Sudder* station, and only hears of the complaints of the ryots through the medium of zemindary vakeels, who support their constituents, of aumila, who are in the pay of zemindars, and of darogahs, whose character would suffer were they to acknowledge that the ryots were oppressed: — to the courts of circuit, who only hear what the magistrates lay before them: — to the boards of Calcutta, who have their knowledge from the reports of zillah magistrates and collectors, or from papers; — to all of these it will appear that I have exaggerated. However honourable, however upright men in office may be, they will ever be unwilling to allow that their measures are unsuccessful.' (P. 357.)

This most important remark is still farther illustrated by the following note:

'Since writing this chapter, I was struck with the truth of a passage, in the Fifth Report of the Committee of the House of Commons (1810), which I cannot help here quoting, as it seems applicable to the subject. Speaking of the reports of the court of circuit, they make the following observation: "It is hardly to be supposed, that, in describing the effects of a new system of internal administration, any of the public servants would lean to the unfavourable side; or, without sufficient foundation, transmit accounts, which it would be disagreeable to the government to receive. A communication of this nature might be rather suspected of painting things in colours pleasing to the government, with the view of bringing the writer into favourable notice. But no motive can be assigned for a wanton provocation of resentment, in a quarter, where it must always be the interest of a public servant to stand on favourable ground, by misrepresentation, or any statement of facts and opinions which the writer does not believe to be accurate and well founded." — *From this disposition to stand on favourable ground with government*, every one feels unwilling to tell them, that their measures are not attended with success.'—

'This unfavourable picture' (p. 4. Introduction,) 'is not generally believed to be a true one; and so great is the weight attached, at present, to the opinions of those who contend on the opposite side of the question, that few have been found daring enough to judge for themselves, or to credit what they themselves might daily witness.' — 'From whatever causes' (p. 11.) 'it may have proceeded, such is, at present, the actual state of things. And yet such is the strong prejudice upon the other side of the question, that one is more likely to be *condemned*, than applauded, *for telling the truth*. This does not intimidate me. "*Potestas modo veniendi in publicum sit, dicendi periculum non recuso.*"'

As the qualities of a government are held up to view, and the character of it is infallibly determined, by the condition of the people, so that condition is seen in two circumstances, their wealth, and their morals. We have already shewn the deplorable situation, with respect to wealth, of the subjects of the British empire in India; and as to morals, they are, if possible, a great deal worse. Though it be not easy to surpass them in the sufferings of poverty, their situation may perhaps be matched in some few places on the surface of the globe: but in immorality, we are persuaded, no nation, among those which have any government, approaches them. Here their degradation appears to be greater than that which has yet been forced on any other mis-governed and ill-treated portion of our race.

That the moral character of the people depends on the government is a proposition in the science of man, which has long been familiar to all well educated and instructed minds; and it is a rule without exception. When we hear, then, that the poverty and the depravity of the people subject to British sway in India are both in the extreme, — and, instead of declining, are both on the increase, — the question respecting the qualities of the government is decided without appeal. Who that possesses the power of reflection needs any farther proof?

Before we proceed to the facts which Mr. Fraser Tytler adduces, in order to exhibit this moral depravity, we must notice that important doctrine which he states, and of which we have already reported his declaration; that the moral character of a people is intimately connected with their situation as to wealth; always good in circumstances of abundance, always the reverse in circumstances approaching to want. The principles in human nature, which demonstrate the infallible certainty of this remarkable truth, are too numerous to permit us to undertake the elucidation of them in this place: but we confidently hope that few of our readers will require a series of arguments to confirm a proposition, of which only a mind stuffed with prejudices unfavourable to the interests of man can find any difficulty in tracing the evidence. Let any one, however, analyse to himself that cluster of motives which constitute the *moral sanction*, in the human breast; and he will find that every one of them is weakened, or deadened, in the horrid combination of circumstances which is formed by the habitual state of approximation to want: while he will equally find that not one of them can fail to be naturally encouraged by the happy combination of circumstances that is attendant on abundance. In this way, it is open for every person to demonstrate to himself this important proposition; and if such be, in verity, the operation of needy circumstances, and of plentiful circumstances, on the mind of man, — on the moral, and we may add the intellectual part of the human frame, — it is sufficiently evident in what channel the business of government ought to proceed.

Let us hear what the present author says, from the impressions made on his senses by the people among whom he lived:

'Great poverty (vol. i. p. 313.) among the lower orders, in every country, has an immediate effect in multiplying the number of petty thieves; and, where the bounds of the moral principle have been once overstepped, however trivial the first offence, the step is easy from petty theft to the greater crimes of burglary and robbery. The character once gone, there is no return to a virtuous course of life: *Facilis descensus Averni: sed revocare gradum — hic labor, hoc opus.* — Poverty may thus be said to be the nurse of almost all crimes. To find out the causes of poverty, and to attempt their removal, must, therefore, be the chief object of a good police: for, in every case, the prevention of crimes is better than their punishment. One great cause of delinquency in Bengal may, I think, be traced to the unequal division of wealth among the higher and middle classes, excluding by far the greater part of the community, the peasants and manufacturers; and this unequal division appears to me to be chiefly caused by the complete change which our government has made in the condition of the ryots, or actual cultivators of the soil.'

This, we see, is charging the government immediately with being the principal cause of the delinquency in Bengal.

In another passage, p. 374., Mr. T. says, 'In accounting for dacoity or robbery, in a zillah or district, our first step ought to be, to examine the condition of the ryots; and we shall always find, in their poverty, and oppression, the chief cause of this evil.'—Again, p. 106., 'Thieves and robbers are the only persons who live well. Theirs is a merry life, and we need not wonder that many poor wretches are induced to adopt it. Let the lower orders have equal comforts with the dacoits, and they will prefer a life of honesty.' The natural consequence happens which might be expected;—the country is to such a degree over-run with robbers, that the people at large have scarcely any security, either of life or of property. They live in the same sort of danger and alarm as if government did not exist.

In exhibiting the extraordinary degree in which crime and profligacy divide the character of the Hindus,—the astonishing prevalence of every thing which is odious and mischievous in human nature,—we can give but a very trifling specimen of the voluminous and irresistible proof that is adduced by the present author. Besides that disposition to robbery, which is so remarkable and so dreadful a feature in the country over which we preside, a most atrocious promptitude to cruelty also exists. Knowing the insecurity in which they live, the people always hide any little property which they are able to collect; and a course of torture to enforce confession is therefore a regular part of a predatory enterprise.

'In one village, in particular,' (says Mr. F. Tytler, p. 108.) 'which I entered immediately after a dacoity had been committed, I recollect being shewn two stakes, with a shallow pit dug between them, over which they had suspended the master of the house; and had actually *roasted him over a slow fire*, until he pointed out the place where his little treasure was hid. He persisted so long in concealing it, that very little life remained: he was only released on shewing them a small hole in the wall, neatly plastered over with clay. From this they took all that he possessed,—*and he died the next day.*'

This is only a specimen, without any thing peculiar in the horror of it. Robbery is a daily and hourly event; torture is regularly employed, and it reaches the highest atrocity as often as the circumstances of the case afford the inducement: while the commission of murder itself, when it is necessary to the robbery, or conducive to safety, is very seldom a matter of scruple.

Another extraordinary quality among the Hindus is their astonishing and almost unexampled contempt of truth:

> 'In nothing' (p. 268.) 'is the general want of principle more evident, than in the total disregard to truth which the Bengalee shews. And here no order or rank among them is to be excepted. Their religious teachers set the example, and it is most scrupulously followed by all ranks. As the shasters declare that lying is allowable in some cases, and the Brahmins have shewn by their example that these cases may be extended;—as, besides, it is a practice esteemed highly serviceable by all the natives, it has therefore become universal, and is no longer considered discreditable. With nothing is the European more struck, on his arrival in the country, than with this horrid vice.'

This perversion of one of the most essential gifts of nature is carried even into the courts of justice, where perjury is universal; and scarcely any case is ever litigated without bringing forwards a set of witnesses on each side, who swear directly in opposition to one another. Instances of the most hideous enormity present themselves daily; and when a man has an interest in taking away the life of another,—when he dreads his evidence, for example,—it is frequently common to prove against him a capital offence by a sufficient number of oaths, and get him hanged!—Speaking generally of the whole people, the author says, (p. 164.) 'The Mussulmans are more bold and enterprising; the Hindus, sluggish and cowardly, but cautious and cunning. Both are, in general, equally destitute of moral principle.'

With regard even to the better sort, we are told, p. 264.,

> 'Although the middling ranks will not steal and rob openly, or commit other bad actions which might lower them in the public eye; yet, when it can be concealed, they will receive bribes; will defraud their masters by false accounts; and, by making use of their power in office, will extort sums in the most paltry and mean way from all who have any transactions with them. They scruple not to make use of their master's name, in cases where greater sums may by these means be obtained. They never receive power but to abuse it; and no salary, however liberal, will put a stop to their corruption and venality. As they have no regard to justice, so they have no feelings of mercy, or pity, for even the most miserable of the poor whose causes they have before them.'

A disposition to sloth is part of that mental and bodily corruption which the pressure of sordid and hopeless poverty incurably creates; and this natural characteristic of a fleeced and overloaded people is conspicuous in Bengal. 'The laziness,' says Mr. Tytler, p. 276., 'of the lowest classes is more particularly remarkable. It is impossible to rouse them, or even to excite in them a wish to look farther than the day before them.' Any additional illustration of this point is unnecessary.

We have already met with some observations of the author on the disposition of the natives to be corrupted by money, and he elsewhere remarks;

> 'Bengal (p. 287.) is, perhaps, the only country in the world where every thing is to be done by money. Venality and corruption are here universal; and I sincerely believe, there is not in Bengal a native to be found who will resist the power of money. It can scarcely be otherwise, when venality has long ceased to be looked upon as a crime: which is really the case in Bengal. Where justice is bought and sold, among even the most respectable of the Pundits and Moluvees of our courts, and where the Aumilah receive bribes with both hands, how can we expect that the lower orders should not be influenced by such an example? They are consequently ready, on all occasions, to sell their words, their exertions, their reputation, and that of their families, to the highest bidder.'

Another feature is thus described: 'The Bengalees, of all ranks, are remarkable for their ingratitude. No kindness conferred on them will ever insure their gratitude. Indeed this virtue seems totally unknown among them.' The illustrations and proofs, which Mr. Tytler exhibits, we are constrained to omit; and we must now finish the picture. The same people are inordinately given to sensual indulgences: — they have no domestic concord: — the education of children is totally neglected; — and they are reared amid family-jealousies, treacheries, and quarrels.

[*To be continued.*]

Art. IV. *Miscellaneous Poems;* by John Byrom, M.A. F.R.S.; some time Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, and Inventor of the Universal English Short-hand. To which are added his Life and Notes by the Editor. 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Cradock and Joy, &c. 1814.

We are not sorry to have been favoured with a re-publication of these compositions; because, though we cannot indeed think that they are peculiarly adapted to the prevailing taste and genius of the age, the author's abilities intitled him to a more general acquaintance; and his character, though it may never have been duly appreciated by superficial observers, will yet acquire a livelier degree of interest from more attentive contemplation.

On the appearance of the former edition in 1773, we expressed our satisfaction at receiving any of the productions of the author of *Colin and Phœbe.* That beautiful pastoral, considered as the early attempt of infant-genius, gave a promise of future excellence which, if it has not been entirely realized, cannot be said to have been irrationally anticipated. If the author, therefore, subsequently failed in the attainment of that applause with which others of much less vigorous faculties have been deservedly honoured, his ill success is in a great degree attributable to the subjects which he selected. These, being for the most part metaphysical questions, or grave disquisitions on topics for which the mass of mankind has little or no relish, were not well suited to display the originality of his genius, or to attract the admiration of the world. Had he confined himself to prose, he would probably have attained the success which he merited; for he had a mind well versed in the habits of philosophical inquiry, and naturally disposed to argumentative investigation. The well-known essays on Dreaming, which were deemed worthy of insertion in the pages of *the Spectator*, manifest considerable powers of conception; together with that unrestrained and easy flow of language which seems to have passed away with the age of Addison.

On the other hand, if he had applied his poetical abilities to themes more favourable to the genius of the Muse, as well as of more general interest to the world at large, his reward would have been unquestionable; since he had a strength of imagination that was capable, if fully exerted, of the boldest flights: he had also taste to embellish and refine the offsprings of his fancy; and to these qualities he added a happy facility of versification, which has been seldom excelled. This lively and pleasing talent seems never to have forsaken him: he had it always at command, both on serious and trivial occasions; and whether he was engaged in writing a familiar epistle to his friend, or aiming the arrows of satire against the hardiest of his opponents, his ideas were conceived in all the fervour of a poetical imagination, and clothed in the language of the Muse. Like the poet of Sulmo, "*quicquid tentabat scribere, versus erat:*" but, unlike him in harmony and softness of expression, he neglected to give to his productions that exquisite and attractive polish, which forms so conspicuous a feature in the poetry of the Roman bard. He was also in a singular degree unambitious of distinction: he seems indeed to have written rather for amusement than for fame, and never to have stopped to correct or improve that which he did not subject of his own accord to the test of criticism. Although his powers of fancy, therefore, were sufficiently abundant, his imagery brilliant, and his allusions just, still a sort of negligence and a want of grace prevailed in the greater part of his works, which prevented them from obtaining their due meed of celebrity. The sketch was bold, the outline was happy, and the proportions were accurate: but the brilliant colouring, the exquisite finish, and the nice touches which characterize the hand of a master, were sought in vain.

As a man, Mr. Byrom maintained an irreproachable character. To a disposition singularly pious, he united a strictness of principle which might boldly challenge the minutest inquiry, and bid defiance to every attack. Yet his zeal was without affectation, and his religion free from melancholy; in his search after truth, he never suffered his reason to be led astray by the clamours of party-prejudice, or the follies of fanatical enthusiasm; and if he seceded from the church, (which appears questionable,) he never could be accused of any bitterness of invective. Moderation seems to have been the ruling principle both of his political and his religious creed; and, though he was engaged in controversy with many of the most learned characters of his age, as well as the stoutest veterans in polemical debate, he never descended into illiberal or unbecoming severity, nor quitted the manliness of rational argument for the puerilities of scurrilous abuse. The works of Brown, Akenside, Watts, and Warburton, became successively the objects of his critical animadversions; and if, in these remarks, censure may sometimes have been indulged, it is never found unaccompanied by much solidity of judgment: while it seems to have been originally awakened not by a spirit of controversy but by a natural love of truth, and to have been subsequently carried on from an impartial adherence to its cause. On the first appearance of the "Divine Legation," he was induced to join in the general hue and cry against the author of that celebrated work: but here he met with an opponent too mighty to be easily subdued, and too firm to yield a passive submission to his antagonist. Warburton, however, though he scorned to retract one iota of his favourite theory, felt the acuteness of Mr. Byrom's remarks, with some pain and vexation; and, while affecting to despise and hold Mr. B. up to ridicule, he frequently betrayed the secret irritations of a temper which was too sensible even of the most trifling injury. The poignancy of wit, and the satirical shrewdness, which characterize '*the Centaur fabulous,*' written as a rejoinder to Warburton, evince so fully the ample resources of a mind not easily overthrown even by the gigantic prowess of the first disputant of his age, that we extract it as affording a favourable specimen of the author's genius and style of satire:

'Zeuxis of old a female Centaur drew
To shew his art, and then expos'd to view;
The human half with so exact a care
Was join'd to limbs of a Thessalian mare,
That seeing from a diff'rent point the piece,
Some prais'd the Maid, and some the Mare, of Greece.

'Like to this Centaur, by his own relation,
Is Doctor Warburton's Divine Legation;
Which superficial writers on each hand, —
Christians and Deists, — did not understand,
Because they both observ'd from partial views
Th' incorporated Church and State of Jews.

'Th' ingenious artist took the pains to draw,
Full and entire, the compound of the law,
The two societies, — the civil kind
And the religious, — perfectly combin'd,
With God Almighty as a temp'ral prince
To govern both, as all his proofs evince,

'Without the doctrine of a future state. —
Here with opponents lies the main debate.
They cannot reconcile to serious thought
God's Church and State, with life to come untaught;
With Law or Gospel cannot make to suit
Virgin of Sion sinking down to brute.

'Zeuxis the new, they argue, takes a pride
In shapes so incompatible allied;
And talks away as if he had pourtray'd
A real creature, mix'd of Mare and Maid.
All who deny th' existence of the pad,
He centaurizes into fool and mad.

'If one objected to a Maiden hoof,
"Why, 'tis an animal," — was all his proof;
If to an animal with human head,
"O! 'tis a beauteous woman," — Zeuxis said.
"What! Animal and Woman both at once?"
"Yes, that's essential to the whole, ye dunce!"

'His primary and secondary sense,
Like Mare and Maid, support his fond pretence.
From joining spot he skips to each extreme,
Or strides to both, and guards the motley scheme;
Solving with like centauriformal ease
Law, Prophets, Gospel, quoted as you please.

'Thus both went on long labour'd volumes through:—
Now what must fair, impartial readers do?
Must they not grieve, if either of them treat
On Law, or Grace, with rudeness or with heat?
Allowing either Zeuxis wondrous skill,
They say, "The Centaur is a fable still."

Of Mr. B.'s playful compositions, we may also afford a sample:

'As Tom the porter went up Ludgate Hill,
A swingeing show'r oblig'd him to stand still;
So in the right-hand passage thro' the gate
He pitch'd his burden down just by the grate,
From which there came in doleful sounds away,—
"Pity—the poor—and hungry—debtors—pray."

'To the same garrison from Paul's Church-yard
A half-drown'd soldier ran to mount the guard;
Now Tom, (it seems) the Ludgateer, and he,
Were formerly acquaintances all three:
And as the coast was clear by cloudy weather,
They quickly fell into discourse together.

'Twas in December when the Highland Clans
Had got to Derbyshire from Preston Pans,
Had struck all London with a woful panic;—
But mark the force of principles Britannic:

'The soldier told them fresh the city news,
Just piping hot from Stock-jobbers and Jews,
Of French fleets landing and of Dutch neutrality,
Of jealousies at Court amongst the quality,
Of Swarston bridge that never was pull'd down,
Of all the rebels in full march to town,
And of a hundred things beside that made
Lord May'r himself and aldermen afraid;
Painting with many an oath the case in view,
And ask'd the porter what he thought to do.

'"Do?" says he gravely,—"what I did before;
What I have done these thirty years and more;—
Carry, as I am like to do, my pack,
Glad to maintain my belly by my back;
If that but hold, I care not, for my part,
Come as come will, 'tshall never break my heart.
I don't see folks that fight about their thrones,
Mind either soldiers' flesh or porters' bones.
Whoe'er gets better when the battle's fought,
Thy pay nor mine will be advanc'd a groat.
But to the purpose;—now we are met here,
I'll join with thee for one full mug of beer."

'The soldier touch'd a little with surprise
To see his friend's indifference, replies,—

"What

"What you say, Tom, I own, is very good;
But — our religion?" — and he d—mn'd his blood —
"What will become of our religion?" "True,"
Says the Jail-bird, — "and of our freedom too?
"If the Pretender (rapp'd he out) comes on,
"Our liberties and properties are gone!"

'And so the soldier and the pris'ner join'd
To work up Tom into a better mind.
He staring dumb, with wonder struck and pity,
Took up his load and trudg'd into the city.'

With regard to Mr. Byrom's abilities as a classical critic, (*in verse,*) a second perusal does not induce us to consider his success in this department as conspicuous.. His remarks on Homer and Horace are often vaguely conceived, and unsupported by authority, or even by any arguments that, in our opinion, approach to conviction. To his improved rendering of the well-known passage in the first book of the Iliad, (l. 50.)

Οὐρῆας μὲν πρῶτον ἐπῴχετο, καὶ κύνας ἀργούς,

where Mr. B. would translate οὐρῆας '*guards,*' and κύνας '*centinels,*' we cannot assent: because in this case what will be the sense of ἀργους? and in the next place, will not the whole force of the antithesis in the succeeding line,

Αὐτὰρ ἔπειτ' αὐτοῖσι βέλος ἐχεπευκὲς ἐφιεὶς,

where the word αὐτοῖσι "*the warriors themselves,*" is opposed to "*the mules and dogs*" on the outside of the camp, be entirely lost by such a reading? Moreover, the pestilence caused by the arrows of Apollo, by which is meant assuredly some atmospherical infection, would naturally affect the brute creation sooner than mankind. Lastly, though we are willing to admit the possibility of rendering οὐρῆας '*guards,*' κύνας is not susceptible of any such translation.

The remarks on Horace have not always plausibility; and they frequently indicate not indeed ignorance of the language, but ignorance of the true spirit and genius of the Horatian style. In that most exquisite ode which ends,

"*Cedes coemptis saltibus, et domo,*
Villâque, flavus quam Tiberis lavit,
Cedes; et exstructis in altum
Divitiis potietur hæres," &c. (Lib. 2. Od. 3. V. 17.)

instead of the last line, to our astonishment we are taught to read "*ædificiis potietur hæres,*" with the diphthong of *ædificiis* elided at the end of the third line, '*after the Horatian fashion.*' We should not have expected this proposition from a man of Mr. Byrom's classical attainments, much less from a *protégé* of Bentley: but the fact is that the religious impressions, with which his mind had been early imbued, gained too much ascendancy over his thoughts to leave room or leisure for literary pursuits. His fondness for the writings of Malebranche, and his attachment to the theory of Bourignon, so completely engrossed his attention as to exclude every other object of inquiry, and finally to enfeeble the energies of a mind which nature had capacitated for the highest endowments.

ART. V. *Original Lines and Translations.* Crown 8vo. 4s. Boards, Murray. 1815.

"*ME quoque Musa levat!*", and your readers also, Mr. Penn; for that his *pen* should betray him who has written so classically and so well in the Illustrations of the Fourth Eclogue of Virgil*, the translation of which is here reprinted, is naturally to be expected. Short, and comparatively unimportant, as this volume is, it yet shews the author to possess a pure taste as well as a pure mind; and we only regret that he has not bestowed on us some ampler extracts from the portfolio of a scholar and a Christian.

We must quote a few lines from a poem which was sent in manuscript to the author of *Childe Harolde*, and, as an advertisement informs us, courteously received. — Transcribing, with a little judicious alteration, a sublime stanza from the poem in question, the writer proceeds to admonish the noble bard that, in his admiration of the beauties of nature, he should not forget the source from which they emanate:

> 'Forget we not the artist in the art,
> Nor overlook the giver in the grace;
> Say, what is nature, but that little part
> Which man's imperfect vision can embrace
> Of the stupendous whole that fills all space,
> The work of HIM by whom all space is bound?
> Shall Raphael's pencil Raphael's self efface?
> Shall Handel's self be lost in Handel's sound?
> Or shall not nature's GOD in nature's work be found?
>
> 'But Harold "through sin's labyrinth has run,"
> Nor "made atonement when he did amiss."
> And does the memory of that evil done
> Disturb his spirit, and obscure his bliss?

---

* See our Review of this truly learned and original work, M. R. Vol. lxix. N. S. p. 412.

'Tis just, 'tis Harold's due. Yet let not this
Press heavier on his heart than Heav'n ordains:
What mortal lives, not guilty or remiss?
What breast, that hath not felt remorse's pains?
What human soul so pure, but mark'd by sin's sad stains?'

'Sin's sad stains' is an unmusical combination of words: but argument rather than versification was the writer's object on this occasion; and his argument is, for the most part, well suited to the purpose which he had in view: it is consolatory and rational; and the statement of the foundation of the Christian faith on historical evidence is forcibly although briefly made in the subjoined lines. We need not say that the poetry is here also a secondary object.

' Did Babylon, in truth, by Cyrus fall?
Is't true, that Persia stain'd the Grecian land?
Did Philip's son the Persian host enthrall?
Or Cæsar's legions press the British strand?
Fell Palestine by Titus' sword and brand?
Can Harold to those facts his faith intrust?
Then, let him humbly learn, and understand,
Then " is Christ risen from the dead," the first
Dear pledge of mortal frames yet mould'ring in the dust.'

We cannot approve the expression, 'Fie! Harold, fie!' in the next stanza; and we can imagine that it would not fail to raise a smile rather unfavourable for the end of serious conviction on the face of the noble reader. We trust, however, that the whole composition made its due impression; and that the advice offered in another part of the volume, for general use, was not altogether unheeded:

' Nor need but *one* good argument to yield.'

The translations from Anacreon, although few in number, more nearly overcome the difficulty of reconciling fidelity and spirit than any that we have seen; and some of the original pieces have their appropriate degree of merit. — From a little *bijou* intitled '*Superba*,' we select the subjoined specimen of good sense, and (we grieve to think) of just reprehension:

' " Good-breeding, I shall best express
By educated gentleness;
Improving ever, age from age,
And train'd to soothe and to engage;
The fairest dress in which to show
The rules that Christians hold below.
But, suddenly has disappear'd
The graceful form by ages rear'd,
And Self, escaping from her chains,
Her lost ascendancy regains.

Civility, is still a work
So light, to Christian or to Turk;
Nay, Kindness is a mood so sweet
To hold to every one we greet;
Propriety, does so adorn
The character on which 'tis worn;
Consistency, has so much ease
Even if we wish'd ourselves to please;
That sense, and taste, and grace are flown
Where'er these vouchers are not shown.
But since this vice is now become
Common to many, rife in some:
(Tho' not exclusive to the fair,
For either sex may claim its share;)
And since 'tis needful to possess
Some rule to meet this selfishness;
Take this: be you yourself consistent:
Not sometimes near, and sometimes distant,
As by the tide of folly thrown;
Whether another's or your own."'

On the poems at the beginning of this miniature volume, we shall leave its readers to make their own remarks. The first is addressed to the Prince Regent, beginning with '*High favour'd Brunswick!*' the second, to the Emperor of Russia, beginning with '*Anointed Prince!*' and the third, to the Duke of Wellington, beginning with '*Great Spirit!*'

ART. VI. ΑΙΣΧΥΛΟΥ ΠΡΟΜΗΘΕΥΣ ΔΕΣΜΩΤΗΣ,—ΕΠΤΑ ΕΠΙ ΘΗΒΑΣ,—ΠΕΡΣΑΙ. *Æschyli Prometheus Vinctus, Septem contra Thebas, et Persæ; ad fidem Manuscriptorum emendavit, Notas et Glossarium adjecit,* Carolus Jacobus Blomfield, A.M. *Collegii SS. Trinitatis apud Cantabrigienses nuper Socius.* 8vo. 3 Vols. 1l. 2s. Boards. Mawman.

WE believe that every Greek scholar in the kingdom is now convinced that the excellent editions of Greek plays, published by the late Professor Porson, carried a plain misnomer in their title-pages. Whether it arose from overstrained modesty, or from that sort of conscious suppression of their energies in which the noblest animals delight;—whether that great scholar may here be considered in the light of one—*parcentis viribus, atque extenuantis eas consultò;*—or whatever may have been the cause of his professing to adapt these plays to the use of the young and unexperienced student;—assuredly they do not answer the purpose for which they are said to have been designed. How, indeed, is it possible that annotations which are principally directed to the settlement of the text, or to the elucidation of particular points of verbal or metrical criticism, should be generally calculated, in the way of explanation, for the youthful reader of the classics? In fact, we have scarcely a single edition of the specimens of the Grecian drama, the use of which is superseded by those of Professor Porson; and this truth is perfectly compatible with another, that no editor has ever done so much for the solid advancement of Greek literature, as the admirable critic in question. Still, the superstructure must not be confounded with either the scaffolding or the foundation; and Mr. Blomfield has properly seen that *something* was wanting to the Professor's editions, in order to make them what they declared their intention to be. For the real use and accommodation of youth, therefore, he has added a glossary extracted from the rarer and more expensive lexicographers, and other sources of grammatical illustration; and thus, *to a certain degree*, he has supplied the deficiency of which, in common with other admirers of "the great scholar now no more," we are forced to complain. We say *something*, and *in some degree*; because Mr. B. has clearly either not seen, or not chosen to supply, *all* that was wanting to make these Porsonian editions of perfect utility to the student. It cannot satisfy that student to tell him, in defence of this remaining deficiency, that the size of the volume would not admit of any thing in the way of explanatory illustration or general criticism, besides the points of this nature, and the other grammatical subjects discussed in the glossary. The books, we contend, might have been of the same size (if that were indispensable: but we cannot exactly see why they might not have considerably exceeded it, without inconvenience,) and yet have contained a much larger quantity of useful matter than they confessedly supply at present. The text, we think, on the whole, is very satisfactorily given, although we are by no means disposed to acquiesce in the arrangement of many of the choruses, — for here, we conceive, is a weak point in these editions: but to the notes subjoined to the text we have every reason to object; and great must be the objection of all scholars who prefer the higher and better style of criticism which is employed on moral, historical, or poetical illustration, to the comparison of various readings, or the collection of minute grammatical morsels. — To the glossary, on the other hand, we give every praise: it is what it professes to be, and indeed much more: it is a faithful, ingenious, and learned transcript from the less common sources of philological information, enriched with much original reading of various kinds, and improved frequently by very acute and successful observations.

Having thus offered our general opinion of the works before us, we shall proceed to examine them in their order, and, as far as our limits will now permit, in detail. — The Prometheus is one of the wildest and most inartificial dramatic tales which antiquity has left us. At the same time, in the unshaken and super-human character of the hero, we see much to arrest and exalt the mind of the reader; and perhaps the spectator, also, might be amused by a grand operatic exhibition of this nature, even in the present day. The savage country about Caucasus; the gigantic demi-god chained to the rock; the horrid personages who fix him there; Old Ocean on his Hippogriff; his softer and more elegant daughters, with their white and rustling wings; Ino *pattering* about the stage with her vaccine hoofs (quære, is this a species of prophetic allegory relating to *Vaccination?*); and, lastly, Mercury in a thunder-storm; — all this combination, we think, must satisfy the most sanguine of our contemporary wonder-mongers, or admirers of "specious miracles." — It is not Æschylus, however, but Mr. Blomfield, with whom we now have to do; and we must descend from general description to τε, γε, κεν, *et* κε; and follow the footsteps of the fashionable University-guide to the common-places of classical criticism.

The *second edition* of the Prometheus (which is before us) is considerably improved in the glossary, the latter part of which had certainly marks of haste about it in the former publication. In the text, also, and notes, are some slight alterations for the better: but we must make a selection or two as a record rather of our opinion than as a specimen; since we doubt not that all our classical readers are well acquainted with the contents of the volumes themselves.

At the 559th line of the Prometheus, where Æschylus indulges in beautiful reflections on the weakness and vanity of mortal life, we have the following passage:

‘ Φέρ᾽ ὅπως ἄχαρις χάρις, ὦ φίλος, εἰ-
πὲ, ποῦ τις ἀλκά;
τίς ἐφαμερίων
ἄρηξις; οὐδ᾽ ἐδέρχθης
ὀλιγοδρανίαν
ἄκικυν, ἰσόνειρον, ᾇ τὸ φωτῶν
ἀλαὸν * * * γένος ἐμπεποδισ-
μένον; οὔποτε τὰν Διὸς ἁρμονίαν
θνατῶν παρεξίασι βουλαί.’

On the 565th line of this passage, we find the subjoined note:

'" *Deest vox trisyllaba. Forsan* ἀλαῶν ἀλαῶ; γ." *Burneius. In* v. 563. *MS. Guelph. habet* ὀλιγοδρανοῦσαν, *unde forsan legendum* Ἄκικυν οὖσαν, ἰσόνειρον, ἃ τὸ Φωτῶν ἀλαὸν γ. ἐ. *vel etiam, quod magis placet,* "Ὀλιγοδρανίαν Ἄκικυν, ἰσχὺν ἰσόνειρον, ᾇ τὸ Φ. *Scholiasta B.* Ὀλιγοδρανίαν. ἀσθενῆ δύναμιν. Ἄκικυν. φαύλην ἰσχύν. *Hæc vox, ob litteras* ι κ υ ν *proxime præeuntes, facile intercidere potuisset.*'

This conjecture is certainly ingenious, if not just: but we pass on to matters of more consequence; merely observing that the chorus, from which the above is selected, affords an instance of the aukward arrangement which we have frequently remarked in the choruses of this edition. On this point, Mr. Blomfield is no otherwise answerable than in adopting, too often without alteration, the decisions of his predecessors; and when he tells us, in the preface to this second edition, that his reason for being so obsequious is his disbelief of the possibility of arranging the choruses of Æschylus with metrical certainty, we should have been contented with his apology, had he exercised a little more discrimination on the subject. When he described himself as '*Burneium nimis religiosè secutum,*' he would have done well to have pointed out more accurately where he differed from that great *Metragogue* (if we may use such a word); for, although we have fully expressed our approbation of the general distribution of the Choric Pieces in the "*Tentamen* *," yet several of those pieces, we cannot help thinking, might be more naturally arranged; and we might have been glad to have seen the opinion of such a scholar as Mr. Blomfield on so nice a matter. To speak the truth, however, we are not inclined to believe that much light would have been thrown on this obscure portion of the poetical harmony of the antients by the lucubrations of the present editor; since he is stronger on any point, we fancy, than on those which relate to metre.

When Mr. Blomfield tells us, '*Pauca quædam in accentibus et apicibus verborum innovavi, Grammaticis omnibus invitis,*' we *listen with all our ears*; and, pursuing the reference which he here gives us to the *Septem Contra Thebas,* we turn to the preface of that play, and find the subjoined acute observations. This seems to be the proper and peculiar arena for the display of Mr. Blomfield's scholarship:

> —— "*Illâ se jactet in aulâ*
> *Æolus, et clauso ventorum carcere regnet.*"

'*In orthographia, quæ dicitur, linguæ Græcæ, nonnulla contra codicum fidem et Grammaticorum placita innovavi. In* v. 456. *dedi*

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* See the Review of the "*Tentamen de Metris Æschyli,*" M.R. Vol. lxviii. N. S. p. 174.

Ναΐταισι pro Ναΐτῃσι, et in v. 599. ναύταισι pro ναύτῃσι, idem semper in hujusmodi dativis facturus. Utram terminationem Attici prætulerint, dijudicare non audeo: id vero non temere crediderim, eam fuisse apud Athenienses sermonis inconstantiam, ut diversas harum vocum formas indifferenter usurparint. Eadem observatione fretus, in v. 114. ἀφνειῶν rescripsi pro ἀφνεῶν,—in v. 378. θείνει pro θένει,—et in pluribus locis ὑπέρκοπος pro ὑπέρκομπος. Porro ὅ, τι, ὅ, τε, τό, τε, et similia, ubicunque occurrunt, sine ὑποδιαστολῆς signo repræsentavi; quando veteres quidem Grammatici ea tantum de causa hanc distinctionem adhibuere, quod libri antiquitus perpetuo styli ductu, sine ullo verborum discrimine, exarati sunt; cujus moris vestigia adhuc supersunt, non modo in lapidum inscriptionibus, verum etiam in papyri voluminibus Herculani effossis, quæ omnia, literis uncialibus scripta, nullam vocabulorum distinctionem agnoscunt. Grammatici igitur scribere solebant ὅ, τι, ἔστιν, ἄξιος, ἔστιν, οὗς, ne cum ὅτι, ἔστι Νάξιος, ἔστι νοῦς confunderentur; quam subdistinctionis notam, cum sit hodie prorsus inutilis, ubique delendam esse judicavi.

'*Monuit quidem doctissimus Elmsleius in Præfatione ad Sophoclis Œdip. Tyr. p. 8. pro τοῦ ἐμοῦ, τὰ ἐμὰ, et similibus, scribendum esse, non τοῦ 'μοῦ, τὰ 'μὰ, sed τοὐμοῦ, τἀμά. Cui equidem catenus assentior, ut apostrophum etiam expungendum putem. Quid enim? nulla est elisio, nec in media voce spiritus lenis exprimi debet, cum is ipse vel sine nota intelligatur. Diversi generis est, quod nonnulli inter veteres Criticos scripsere tum φίλιππος, in Sophoclis Tereo a Dionysio Halicarnassense lectum, tum αὔρος, ταὧς, πλησίαλος, et similia; quæ tamen omnia a mala Grammaticorum σπουδῇ profluxisse opinor. Quare mihi vix dubium videtur, quin scribendum sit, τουμοῦ, ταμὰ, χὤστις, eadem ratione ac οὑμὸς, ἁμὰ, et cetera ejusdem generis, quibus apostrophum non appinxit Vir accurata doctrina insignis. Fieri tamen potest, ut hanc notam aliquando apposuerint Grammatici, ne confusio oriretur; ideoque forsitan scribere solebant τὰν pro τοι ἄν, ut a τὰν articulo discerni posset. Quando autem hæc quæstio vix ad liquidum perduci potest, satius judicavi lectorum oculis non incursare inusitata verborum specie. Reliqui igitur τοὐμὸν, τἀξευρήματα, et similia quædam; ὡνὴρ vero pro ὁ ἀνὴρ, προὖπτον pro πρόοπτον, et in Prometheo προυτεθεσπίκει pro προετεθεσπίκει, secure exhibui.*

'*Non me fugit, totam de prosodiis, ut aiunt, quæstionem eam esse, de qua certi quidquam vix definiri possit; id vero meminerint tirones, quando de hujusmodi minutiis disputatur, non de Æschyli, aut alii cujusvis scriptoris Attici salute agi, verum de Alexandrinæ duntaxat recensionis apicibus: satis enim liquet, poetarum scenicorum, quæ hodie circumferuntur, reliquias, nobis ex Aristophanis vel Aristarchi editionibus transmissas fuisse, per longam Grammaticorum seriem. Aristophanem quidem Euripidi operam navasse constat: Æschylum vero a discipulo istius Aristarcho curatum fuisse, et commentariis instructum, discimus ex Scholiasta Theocriti in Idyll. X. 18. ubi laudatur Ἀρίσταρχος ἐν ὑπομνήματι Λυκούργου Αἰσχύλῳ.*

'*Similiter cum ambigimus, scribendumne sit ἠδυνάμην an ἐδυνάμην, ηὗρον an εὗρον, ᾔκασα an εἴκασα, de veteri scriptura nulla fit controversia; siquidem Tragicorum seculo vocales longæ Athenas nondum pervenerant. Id tantum anquirimus, num Attici ancipites syllabas graviore an acutiore sono*

sono extulerint: isti enim ipsi non, ut plerique nostrorum hominum, nullum in hujusmodi vocibus pronuntiandis discrimen observabant, sed, ut ait vetus quidam Grammaticus, οἱ παλαιοὶ ἄλλως ἐξεφώνουν τὸ μακρὸν, καὶ ἄλλως τὸ βραχύ.'

We have made this long extract from the portion of the volumes before us which we deem the most calculated to display the editor's real talents, for obvious reasons; and we shall therefore the less regret being obliged to take a comparatively brief notice of the text or the glossary of the two other plays.

The chorus at the 78th line of the *Septem Contra Thebas* loses, we think, much of its animation and music under the paring and pruning hand of the present editor. His notion of giving as many verses '*ejusdem moduli*' as he could is a very extraordinary one indeed; and the result of this Procrustean system is such as we might expect; — a diminution of variety, without any but an apparent addition of agreement. On this subject, however, we have neither time nor inclination to dwell at this moment; the little that we have said will be sufficient for the initiated, and, we hope, will not appear unfounded.

The subjoined note on the word Τυμβοχόος is neat and satisfactory:

*' * Τυμβοχόας. *Tumulum aggerens.* τυμβοχόα χειρώματα. *tumuli aggestiones manibus factæ. Nulla est quæstio de libatione in tumulum effundenda, quod putarunt Stanleius et Schutzius. Hesych.* Τυμβοχοῆσαι. τυμχῶσαι. θάψαι. *Lex. MS. ap. Albert. explicat* τύμβου χωστοῦ ἀξιῶσαι. *Photius,* Τυμβοχοεῖ. θάπτει. *Homer. Iliad.* Φ. 322. οὐδέ τι μιν χρεὼ ἔσται τυμβοχοῆσ', ὅτε μιν θάπτωσιν Ἀχαιοί. *ubi Schol. Ven.* οὐκ ἔσται αὐτῷ χρεία χώσεως τάφου. *Vid. Auctar. in Hesych. II.* 1433. *Etymol. M. p.* 771, 39. Τυμβοχοεῖ. θάπτει χωστῷ τάφῳ. *quo sensu ponitur ap. Herodot. VII.* 117. *Hinc* ἕργμα τυμβόχωστον *Sophocl. Antig.* 848. *Plura vide ad v.* 947.'

To the notes of the *Septem Contra Thebas,* we find a few additions, and not of an unimportant nature; and an useful index is now subjoined to all the glossaries. On the whole, we think, we discern considerable improvement as Mr. Blomfield advances in his critical labours; and we doubt not, if he should be enabled to finish his design of giving a separate edition of the plays of Æschylus, each in succession to the last, that the whole will form a very useful addition to our school and college-classics. It is obvious, indeed, that, in such a work, all that is most material will depend on a judicious selection from previous editors; and such is the character of Mr. Blomfield's performances. As far as they go, they are from this circumstance safe guides: but, although ampler and more generally useful in information than their prototypes, the editions of Professor Porson, they yet (as we also observed at the commencement of this article) want much indeed to make them complete, or nearly complete, manuals for the use of the scholar. They suppose it to be necessary for him to possess too many other books: they take, in a word, too much for granted; and they are rather memoranda to the proficient of what he already knows, than helps to the student towards farther knowlege. We speak in course principally of the notes; repeating our praise of the general utility of the glossaries. No doubt, in these glossaries, Mr. Blomfield must have been occasionally exposed to objections similar to those which were suggested to every arrangement that could be made by "the Old Man, his Son, and the Ass;" and therefore we shall consider the impossibility of pleasing every body, and reiterate none of the remarks which we have heard concerning the *too much* in one place, and the *too little* in another, of each and all of these useful collections. — We now find it necessary to curtail our remarks on the volumes, and to turn rather abruptly to the last.

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* Words marked with an asterisk in these glossaries signify such as are found only in Æschylus, as far as the author's reading has discovered.

We observe an increased confidence as well as improvement in Mr. Blomfield's manner of commentating, as he grows older in his editorial exertions. In the preface to the Prometheus, we saw him diffidently beginning; *Pauca sunt, quæ de instituto meo, et de hâc Promethei Æschylei editione, præfari velim,*' &c. &c.; and in introducing the *Septem Contra Thebas* he adopts the same sort of subdued tone: but soon "he steps me a little higher," and proceeds to the following more spirited exordium: '*Prodeunt tandem Persæ, serius quidem quàm pollicitus eram,*' &c.—'*Prodeunt autem, si non emendati, at certè emendatiores quàm in prioribus editionibus, et nonnullis in locis novâ luce suffusi.*'

The succeeding paragraph makes us a little more serious. We may smile with perfect good humour at what we are so often forced to observe, the growing self-possession of authors; — a feeling which, if they are not *very* cautious, is apt to degenerate even into self-estimation: but, when we find a seeming accuracy of statement, as to the collation of a manuscript, used as an occasion for no very ambiguous boast of memory, we are disposed (not we hope *sævo ludere cum joco*, but) to mingle a little more austerity with our smiles. '*Nescio an verè dixerim librum istum à me collatum fuisse. Et enim cum occasio codicis evolvendi insperanti mihi oblata esset, summâ cum festinatione, sine Æschylo impresso,* et memoriæ tantùm fidens, *perlegi.*' Yet, when speaking of the various readings afforded by this MS., the editor (*who trusted only to his memory*) says, '*quarum* (*lectionum*) unam, *quæ fuit in textum adsumenda,* nescio quâ incuriâ, *factum est ut silentio prætermiserim.*' — "Somewhat too much of this."

In this distinguished preface, are many remarks conveying very useful information; and we wish that we could extract any more of it than is contained in the following clever little passage:

> '*Si quis vero id antiquitatis vestigium esse credat, quod prologus per anapæstos exorditur, meminerit idem postea fecisse Euripidem in prima Iphigenia, modo germanus sit iste prologus, de quo tamen valde dubito. Sed notatu dignum est, in duabus certe antiquissimis quas habemus Tragœdiis, Persis et Supplicibus, Chorum Prologi officio fungi; unde constat Tragœdiam isto tempore non agnovisse omnes regulas quibus eam postea circumscripsit Aristoteles, e quibus una hæc fuit,* Πρόλογος μὲν, μέρος ὅλον τραγῳδίας τὸ πρὸ Χόρου παρόδου, *ubi vide Tyrwhittum.*'

On the 1075th verse of the *Persæ,* viz. ἰῆ, ἰῆ, ἰῆ, we cannot refrain from extracting the note; and we should scarcely deem it possible for even our most critical of classical readers to command their muscles, when such an example of grave frivolity is brought before them:

> ' 1075–6. — *Hi versus in plerisque editionibus hunc in modum leguntur.* ΞΕ. ἦ ἦ ἦ ἦ, τρισκάλμοισιν = ἦ ἦ ἦ ἦ, βάρισιν ὀλόμενοι. *In utroque versu pro* ἦ ἦ ἦ ἦ *Robortellus et L.* ἰὴ, ἰή. *Aldus* ἦ ἦ ἦ.'

We find it impracticable, within our limits, to prolong our remarks on these volumes; and we dismiss them with many thanks to their learned editor:—to whom, however, on parting, it is necessary to suggest the expediency of enriching in a few places the poverty of his Latinity. In *note-Latin,* we are not, in course, extreme to mark what is written amiss: but we have here more than the usual baldness, on some occasions, *quæ non* (as Mr. Blomfield says) *facilem admittunt explicationem.*

ART. VII. *An Exposition of the Causes and Character of the late War with Great Britain.* Published by Authority of the American Government. 8vo. pp. 101. Printed at Washington, and reprinted in London for Clement. 1815. Eighth Edition. Price 5s.

CORDIALLY do we hope that this publication will be one of the last that we shall have occasion to notice on the subject of our late contest with the Americans. It was drawn up, we learn, in the beginning of the year 1815, on the receipt of dispatches from their negociators at Ghent, which seemed to leave them little expectation of making peace with us on safe or honourable terms; and it will be recollected that their government also published, in the autumn of 1814, extracts from the dispatches of their plenipotentiaries, containing demands on the part of our envoys which were strongly censured in the British parliament and subsequently relinquished by our ministers. The Americans, however, taking it for granted that we should persist in what we had demanded, had begun to adopt measures for uniting all parties in a common cause, and for raising such a force as might guard their frontier effectually from our attacks: but these preparations were fortunately rendered unnecessary by the arrival of intelligence that our government had consented to peace on terms of reciprocity, and that a treaty was actually signed at Ghent in the end of December. An immediate stop was then put to the publication of the present document, which had been intended as a manifesto or appeal to the population at large; and it was kept carefully back until the ratification of the peace, and the adjustment of the principal articles of a treaty of commerce. After all these pacific arrangements, it ought perhaps to have been buried in oblivion: but the majority of the American people still smarted under our injuries, and their rulers appear to have permitted the circulation of this long list of grievances as an offering or sacrifice to their wounded spirit.

Of the different publications noticed by us in late years on the American question, none discovered greater moderation at the time, or have approached more nearly in point of reasoning to the result, than the "Letters of a Cosmopolite," and the "Anticipation of Marginal Notes," by the same writer, which were reviewed in our Numbers for August 1812 and April 1813. That author, who is as much a stranger to our corps as to the public, had the merit of laying a temperate statement before his countrymen, at a time when all classes seemed blinded by a common enthusiasm against the claims of the Americans. His arguments accordingly had little effect: but the 'Exposition' has appeared at a more fortunate epoch; its circulation has been very considerable; and it has, we are told, been productive of a very material change in the state of public feeling towards the American government. Now that the return of peace has allowed us to judge coolly, and to receive a statement of the opposite side of the question, we begin to find that our ministers *may* have been to blame in the beginning of the contest; and that some of our officers *may*, in its prosecution, have forgotten those dictates of generosity and humanity which are so congenial to the majority of our countrymen. In fact, the more we examine the question, the more we shall be satisfied that the public have hitherto been strangely in the dark as to our quarrel with America; and that the language of our news-papers has, in that respect, been about as deceptive as it is at present with regard to the state of France: — a country in which we know from direct advices that all is tranquil at the time when those ingenious gentlemen, who live by keeping the public mind in a state of uncertainty, find it convenient to circulate rumours of dissensions and insurrections. These disinterested persons profess a strong predilection for measures of vigour, and declare themselves to be actuated on all occasions by the purest patriotism: but, unluckily, their consciences are not sufficiently tender to withhold them from the un-christian practice of inflaming national animosities; nor is their modesty such as to lead to an acknowlegement of error, after the conduct of government has shewn that they were strangers to the real views of our cabinet. What measures were less within their calculation than the repeal of the Orders in Council in June 1812, or the conclusion of the peace with America twelve months ago? The public had in the one case been taught to look on the grand restriction in question as the pillar of our salvation; while, on the other, they were prepared by the news-papers for nothing short of a new and most extensive scale of operations. — We shall now endeavour to state a few particulars calculated to draw the veil from these mysterious transactions, and to enable our readers to trace the motives of the apparent contradictions in the measures of our Government.

Origin of our Orders in Council.—The war which began in 1803 seemed from its outset to have no definite prospect of termination; Bonaparte proceeding in his tone of presumption and encroachment, while we, however powerful at sea, seemed not likely to be able to turn the tide of fortune against him on the Continent. One year was thus likely to pass after another; our commerce was suffering severely from the disadvantages of a state of war; and neutrals, particularly the Americans, navigating on easier terms, without the incumbrance of convoys or the burden of high insurance, appeared in competition with us in every market, from the Baltic to China. Had our naval power been less preeminent, we might have consented to adopt the course pursued by inferior belligerents, viz. that of carrying on a part of our trade under a neutral flag, and reserving British shipping for particular branches, such as the coasting and colonial navigation: but the doctrine of moderation is seldom palatable in the day of superiority; we were all agreed in combating the tyrant of the Continent; and it seemed to many among us a better plan to *put a stop to neutral trade altogether*, than to steer a middle course by listening to the patient few who sought to prove that we should consult our interest by its toleration. To decide in this direct or (as we might almost say) abrupt manner is sufficiently natural to the mass of a people: but what are we to think of ministers who yield to hasty impressions, and venture to take measures of hostility without appreciating the consequences to those whom they are appointed to govern?

In the year 1805, Mr. Pitt, being aware of the complaints of our ship-owners, and of the transaction of trade between the Americans and the French colonies, was persuaded to take steps calculated to restrict that trade within specific limits. He was urged, we may be assured, to go much farther: but he had by this time acquired experience; and, though not possessed of sufficient command of time to examine a complicated subject in all its relations, he was convinced that the real consequences of interference with trade are generally very different from the apparent. He was succeeded, in 1806, by men who were disposed to cultivate a good understanding with America, but who were unluckily prevented, by the unwarrantable pretensions of Bonaparte and the ferment existing among ourselves, from acting as they would have wished. This was accordingly the æra of several measures that were the subject of complaint from the Americans; who, however, seemed to consider them as only temporary, and negotiated under the belief that our ministers were ardently desirous of an accommodation. Then came the second change of ministry (May 1807), and the adoption of a system altogether new. The caution of Mr. Pitt, and the half-measures of the Grenville-ministry, were now treated as wholly unworthy of a nation possessing the dominion of the sea; and the violence of Napoleon was no longer to be resisted by the armour of moderation and justice, but by the adoption of corresponding violence on our part. Hence the seizure of the Danish navy; which was applauded at the time, but has since been bitterly lamented as the cause of the delay of the co-operation of Russia against France, of the alienation of Norway from Denmark, and of an unhappy spirit of resentment engendered against us in the latter country. From the same change of system arose the measures against the Americans; — measures ascribed by our newspaper-writers, and even by some of our parliamentary orators, to the necessity of retaliating Bonaparte's violence, but which were in contemplation among ourselves long before he took any steps for the execution of his prohibitory decrees. If we turn to the evidence annexed to the Report of a Committee of the House of Commons in July 1807, on West-India-affairs, we shall find that the Committee in question had been occupied, during that and the preceding month, in examining a number of witnesses concerning the possibility of excluding the Americans altogether from our sugar-colonies; an exclusion which could never have been in contemplation without an accompanying restriction on American navigation at large: while it is matter of notoriety among the well-informed merchants of London, that, during the summer of 1807, repeated interviews and communications took place between merchants and men in office on the probable consequences of such a measure. The ship-owners called for it loudly: but the apprehension of losing an export of ten or 12,000,000l. annually to the United States proved, in another quarter, the cause of considerable delay and inquiry. The object of ministers, in these interviews, was to ascertain whether we could not find means of conveying our manufactures directly to the countries, particularly to Spanish America, whither they had hitherto been imported by merchants of the United States. The dates of these transactions are recorded in the proceedings of the ship-owners and of the Board of Trade; and from the whole it is clear that the stoppage of the American trade was not the result of the extravagant decrees of Bonaparte, but of a plan previously devised among ourselves.

'The pride of naval superiority,' (says the Exposition, p. 44.) 'and the cravings of commercial monopoly, gave, after all, the impulse and direction to the councils of the British cabinet; while the vast, although visionary projects of France, furnished occasions and pretexts for accomplishing the objects of those councils.'

We are willing, for the sake of simplifying the discussion, to waive all inquiry into the justice or injustice of our Orders in Council, and shall consider merely their policy. They were dictated by a belief among certain individuals, partly merchants, partly men in office, partly lawyers, (among whom one of the most conspicuous was Mr. Stephen,) that "it was perfectly practicable for us to maintain our export-trade without the aid of the Americans, and to controul by means of licences the extent to which it should please us to allow France to traffic with other nations." It was admitted that the operation of such a measure might in the outset be subject to partial disadvantages: but its final tendency could not, it was alleged, be otherwise than beneficial to the country. The odium of the violent part was thrown on Napoleon; and encouragement was indirectly given to that spirit of jealousy of America, which actuated the less enlightened men of the city, as well as politicians of a certain class at the west end of the town. Forth came accordingly, in the Gazette of 11th November 1807, our far-famed Orders; — the text of which, being too much in the law-style for the habits of men of business, was succeeded by a commentary which rivalled in obscurity the original composition. We are in the next place to consider the

Effects of the Orders in Council. — If the language of these decrees was doubtful, their practical operation was soon described in very legible characters. Failure on failure took place in our manufacturing towns; and matters came at last, in the spring and summer of 1808, to such a length as to produce petitions for peace from men who were well known to be most cordial in their hatred of the Continental oppressor. These petitions caused many to waver, and might have given a shock to the system, had not the change of affairs in Spain produced the effect of opening, all at once, the trans-Atlantic possessions of that monarchy to our exports. Now began shipments to Caraccas, to Brazil, to Buenos Ayres, and an arithmetical increase in our Custom-house books which put the advocates of the Orders in Council in a triumphant attitude. "I have no objection," said one of them in parliament, "to acknowledge my participation in a measure which has been instrumental in adding so many millions to the exports of the country." This pleasing dream continued during the year 1809; "a year," said Mr. G. Chalmers, "the most prosperous to us in all that constitutes opulence throughout the *effluxion* of half a century." These gentlemen, however, did not take into account the difficulty of getting *returns* for their liberal shipments: Mr. Mawe had not then published his precious information (see M. R. Vol. lxxii. p. 343.) on the state of the Brazil trade; and the oracle of the day was Sir Home Popham's celebrated epistle from Buenos Ayres to the Mayor of Birmingham. We were roused, however, from these delightful visions, by the call of the manufacturer in the spring of 1810 on the exporting merchant for *payment*; — a call soon followed by a long string of bankruptcies, which took their rise from the middle of that year. It was then that we learned that it was one thing to make sales, and another to realize their amount; that there did exist a difference in dealing between North and South America; and that the latter, whatever may be its importance to the next generation, is not likely to be of much advantage to the traders of our day.

The habits of a merchant are, it is well known, better fitted for the practical performance of individual transactions than for a conception of the tendency of general measures. Cabinet-ministers, also, come generally into office without sufficient preparation, and, when in place, are too much absorbed by an incessant routine to carry their reflections into remote consequences. To complete our perplexity, it unluckily happens that the principles of commerce are very little studied by those honourable persons, who figure so dextrously in the management of their respective boroughs, or acquit themselves so gracefully at a levee. It would be otherwise impossible to account for that silence and misapprehension which prevailed so long in parliament, with regard to the mischief caused by the Orders in Council, — a mischief which was pointed out, in a convincing tone, by one member only, viz. Mr. Baring. That gentleman explained, in his pamphlet on the Orders in Council, that, of all the shipments of merchandise made by America to France, Holland, and other parts of Europe, more than *two-thirds were remitted in bills or money to England*, and invested in the purchase of our manufactures: while to stop this trade would be to stop those remittances which afforded funds for our foreign garrisons, for the subsidies to our allies, and for the supplies to our squadrons in the Mediterranean and other foreign stations. It would, in fact, be to overthrow that powerful counterpoise which had hitherto corrected on the Continent the irregularity of our money-system, and prevented our bank-paper from falling into discredit. All these consequences, with the time and the mode of their operation, have already been explained in our pages; more particularly in Vol. lix. p. 56., Vol. lxiii. p. 289., Vol. lxviii. pp. 66. and 378.; and we have thus the satisfaction of having embraced an early opportunity of warning the public of the impending injury. It would be superfluous to recapitulate what has been already stated; and we shall confine ourselves at present to an attempt to calculate the amount of the loss caused to us by the Orders in Council, and the consequent war with America. The more we reflect on this result, the more we shall be surprized at its magnitude, and at the variety of ways in which injury has been sustained: it seems to meet us in every shape, whether direct or indirect. We have suffered by

I. — 1. Loss of exports to the United States during six years, from 1808 to 1814.

2. Bankruptcies in Great Britain caused by the stoppage of the American trade during all these years.

3. Deficiency in the income-tax, and others, consequent on these bankruptcies.

4. Bankruptcies in America among the debtors of British merchants. (This, though little known, has been a very serious part of our loss.)

5. Diminished consumption of our manufactures from rival establishments in the United States.

6. Bankruptcies on the continent of Europe among the debtors of British merchants, consequent on our Orders in Council.

II.—1. Loss to government on its continental expenditure from 1809 to 1815, by the fall of the exchange.

2. Loss to government in loans from the reduced price of stock since 1810; a reduction owing chiefly to two causes,—mercantile distress, and the enormous addition to our expenditure abroad from the depreciation of bank-notes.

3. Extra price of foreign goods, paid as it has been in a depreciated currency, during the last seven years.

III.—1. Expences of the American war.

2. Captures of our merchantmen, and other private losses during that war.

A part of this distressing enumeration, we mean that which is mentioned under No. II., was aggravated by other circumstances;—viz. the sudden demand of aid from Spain, the failure of our harvest in 1809, and the reduction of our continental exports by Bonaparte's prohibitory decrees. The chief source of the evil, however, or rather the grand cause of the absence of a remedy, was our stoppage of the American trade to the Continent, with the consequent deprivation of the ample fund of which it would have procured for us the remittance.

Three years ago, (see M.R. Vol. lxviii. p. 379.) we computed the amount of the losses caused by our Orders in Council at one hundred millions sterling: but, since that time, we have had to pay immense sums in Spain, Germany, and the Netherlands, at a disadvantageous exchange, and to bear all the burden of the American contest. Shall we, then, be accused of exaggeration in calculating the whole of the loss sustained, from first to last, by these unfortunate Orders, at *two hundred millions sterling?*

How, it may be said, was it possible that Government should allow such pernicious measures to continue in operation during such a number of years? They thought for a time that they were injuring France; and when at last they found that we were injuring ourselves, the discovery came too late; —the error, in which we so long persisted, had led us, like Bonaparte at Moscow, into a situation from which we had no escape. Lord Liverpool, however, having studied the true principles of commerce, and seeing farther into their consequences than his predecessors, repealed the Orders in Council immediately on being appointed to the first place in the cabinet; and he repealed them not from any change in our political situation, (for Bonaparte was still triumphant,) and not, as far as we know, from any new light thrown on them by parliamentary discussions, but from a conviction that "whatever shackles the free course of commerce must be of the greatest injury to England, the country of all others the most benefited by commerce." Unfortunately, his recall came too late, the Americans having already declared war. It is expressly admitted in the document before us (p. 68.) that, 'had their repeal been made known to the United States before their resort to arms, it *would have arrested it*; and, that cause of war being removed, the other essential cause, the practice of impressment, would have been the subject of renewed negociation.'

If it be asked, why did not the Americans do after the commencement of the war that which they would have done before it? we shall by no means seek to justify their refusal. We may, however, easily account for it by the exasperation caused by recent events. 'Great Britain' (says their government-manifesto, p. 61.) 'had converted the commercial scenes of American opulence and prosperity into scenes of comparative poverty and distress; she had brought the existence of the United States as an independent nation into question.' We seem to have little reason for doubting that the executive government in America was desirous of getting out of the war as soon as it ascertained the repeal of our Orders in Council: but the people in the middle and southern States, and, in consequence, the majority of the members of Congress, were in a very different disposition. From this time forwards, therefore, we had no other choice than to meet force by force; and our only satisfaction, amid the mutual havoc that ensued, was that we had now a ministry disposed to make peace on fair terms.—In declining our offers, and particularly the armistice proposed by Sir John Warren in 1812, the Americans assumed the tone which had characterized our Government a few years before. The Marquis Wellesley and Mr. Canning had taken it for granted that the United States would submit to any thing rather than hazard a war; nay, that war would be ridiculous on the part of a country which had neither army nor navy. On the other hand, the Americans now made sure of the conquest of Canada; they anticipated it in their diplomatic notes; and they persisted in their attempts even after repeated overthrows. It would be unpleasant to us to dwell on the events of such a contest; and we shall merely remark that it happened, by a singular coincidence, that fortune declared against each party as it ventured to assume the offensive: since we failed, in our turn, when we advanced beyond the Canadian line, and when we attempted an attack on New Orleans.

After this discussion of the general merits of the question, it remains to state more particularly the contents of the publication before us; which may be divided into the following parts:

Conduct of the American Government towards Great Britain, particularly with regard to the impressment of their seamen: p. 1. to 24.

Their conduct towards France and Spain, especially respecting Louisiana and Florida: p. 24. to 34.

Farther proceedings on the subject of Impressment: p. 34. to 43.

Bonaparte's Decrees, and our Orders in Council: p. 43. to 60.

The Causes of the War, and the object of the American Government during its continuance: p. 60. to 71.

Complaints of Inhumanity shewn on our part, during the war, particularly in permitting our Indian allies to put prisoners to death, and in burning defenceless places by our troops: p. 71. to the end.

The lamentable excesses contained under the last head derived their origin from two causes; first, our system of calling in Indian allies; and next, as far as it regarded our own troops, from an eagerness to retaliate the burning of the town of Newark, on the Canadian frontier, by the Americans. This irregularity is confessed in the 'Exposition,' (p. 73, 74.) but was forthwith disavowed by the American government, who transmitted to Sir G. Prevost a copy of their orders to the officer who had been guilty of the excess, as a proof that nothing of the kind was in their contemplation. Our army having avenged itself by burning five American villages, and our General having declared in a proclamation "that a full measure of retaliation had taken place," the Americans argue that the violence of their officer ought not to have been a motive for subsequent deviations from the law of nations; and they complain, in particular, (p. 96.) of our burning the civil edifices at Washington, instead of confining the destruction to their naval and military stores. The picture exhibited (p. 92, 93.) of the irregularities committed at Hampton, in Virginia, must be distressing to every reader of humanity, and recalls the conduct of Bonaparte or Suchet: but we deem it unnecessary to dwell on the subject, because cruelty forms no part of the character of our gallant defenders, and, if wrong, they must have acted under a belief of correspondent excesses on the part of the Americans.

It did not suit the views of the American government to make a distinction between one set of British ministers and another. Their object was to unite the people in a common casue; and it is amusing to see them charge a cabinet, in which we reckon such pacific counsellors as Lord Sidmouth and Mr. Vansittart, with the ruthless projects of their predecessors. It is no part of our duty, or our intention, to express admiration of our present administrators: but neither the violent character assumed by the war during the last year of operations, nor the rash enterprize on New Orleans, appears to us imputable to them. Hostility to America had been cherished among us in former years; and the sum of ministerial culpability seems to be confined to a passiveness of conduct in not opposing their own conviction to the impulse of national feeling. It is only by this deference to public sentiment, that we can account for the lofty tone assumed in parliament by Lord Bathurst and his coadjutors, in defence of our vindictive operations; a tone the more extraordinary as we were then on the eve of signing the peace at Ghent. A similar reason may serve to explain the high demands made on our part at the beginning of the negociation; as well as a dilatoriness in treating, of which we find much complaint in the 'Exposition,' (p. 71.) and which certainly was not expedient in the actual state of our finances.

The style of this publication has all the gravity and stateliness of office. We have observed in it a few deviations from English idiom, (such as p. 20. 'to test' instead of 'to put to the test,') but its most unusual characteristic, as a popular address, is its length. On this side of the Atlantic, governments are in the habit of presenting, in these plausible appeals, only a few leading points to the body of the people: but the Americans pay them the compliment of introducing almost every topic. Yet, though this 'Exposition' bears less of an inflammatory character than such documents generally exhibit in Europe, it can by no means lay claim to the merit of strict impartiality. No allowance is made for the very reprehensible practice of granting certificates of American citizenship to British seamen, nor for the embarrassment in which the Grenville-ministry was placed at a particular period (January 1807) by the violence of Bonaparte's decrees, and the consequent demand on them for retaliation. A similar unfairness appears in alleging (p. 65.) that 'the American government, after declaring war, made repeated and urgent efforts to put an end to it.' We are more gratified in hearing them assert, (p. 65.) in a manly tone, the falsehood of the charge of a private understanding between them and France: 'The British Cabinet,' it is said, 'is challenged to produce, from the recesses of its secret or of its public archives, a *single instance* of unworthy concession, or of political alliance and combination, throughout the intercourse of the United States with the revolutionary rulers of France.'

We copy with still greater satisfaction a passage from the end of the work, which is expressive, we hope, of the real feelings of America towards us: 'The United States have never indulged towards England sentiments incompatible with the reciprocity of good will, and an intercourse of mutual benefit and advantage. They can never repine at seeing the British nation great, prosperous, and happy; safe in its maritime rights, and powerful in its means of maintaining them.'

May such be in future the motto of two kindred nations, situated so as to contribute most effectually to each other's welfare, without having any rational motive for jealousy at the increase of their mutual greatness!

Art. VIII. *Relation circonstanciée de la Campagne de Russie,* &c.; *i.e.* A Circumstantial Narrative of the Campaign in Russia, in 1812, with Plans of the Battles of the Moskwa and Malo-Jaroslavitz, and a Summary Statement of the French Forces during that Campaign. By Eugene Labaume, Captain of the Royal Geographical Engineers, Ex-Officer of the Artillery of Prince Eugene, Knight of the Legion of Honour, and of the Iron Crown. 4th Edition, corrected and enlarged. 8vo. pp. 462. Paris. 1815.

A Circumstantial Narrative of the Campaign in Russia, embellished with Plans of the Battles of the Moskwa and Malo-Jaroslavitz, &c. &c. By Eugene Labaume. Translated from the French. 2d Edition, considerably improved. 8vo. pp. 412. 12s. 6d. Boards. Leigh. 1815.

We doubt not that both the title and the contents of this work are known already to the major part of our readers, the interest of the narrative having caused the circulation of a number of extracts through the medium of the news-papers. It is a relation, by an eye-witness, of the unpreprecedentedly dreadful scenes which occurred throughout the whole extent of Bonaparte's memorable flight from Moscow; and it derives its value equally from the importance of the events and from a deficiency of narratives from other quarters. Indeed, amid such horrors, it was in vain for commanding officers to think of preserving official documents; since the pressure of cold and hunger, and the terror of an enemy at one time in the front and at another in the rear, produced a disregard of orders and an abandonment of all that was not essential to the preservation of life. M. Labaume, however, endeavours to persuade his readers that *he* persevered in recording, amid his dying comrades, the events of each successive day; using for the instrument of his penmanship 'a raven's quill, and for ink a little gun-powder, mixed with some melted snow in the hollow of his hand:' but he must pardon us, if we suspect this to be nothing else than one of the rhetorical flourishes which are scattered throughout the book, and which proceed apparently from some pen more practised in literary workmanship than that of a '*Knight of the Iron Crown.*' The work, in fact, may be said to consist of two parts; first, of a narrative of the successive marches of the French in their invasion and flight; and, secondly, of a string of effusions and declamatory reasonings, evidently composed after the downfall of Bonaparte. Much of the latter might have been retrenched; as well for the sake of avoiding repetition, as from the obvious consideration that the criminality of his conduct was best illustrated by a simple exposition of the misery which he brought on his followers.

Notwithstanding these interpolations, the book is by much the best that has come before us on the subject of this great catastrophe. The Russians, into whose hands the principal materials fell, have not yet acquired the gift of description; and, among the many military men in France, it is rare to find, at least in the humbler ranks, a survivor of the Russian campaign. The chief defect of M. Labaume's detail is the want of general views. He belonged to the fourth corps, commanded by Eugene Beauharnois, and gives a sufficiently clear account of the proceedings of that body; with occasional notices of the operations of the centre of the army under Napoleon: but we meet with few attempts to explain the scope of the campaign on a large scale. This desideratum we shall endeavour in some measure to supply; and we shall neither be copious in our extracts from the volume before us, nor attentive to every link in the chain of events, taking it for granted that the principal passages and transactions are already familiar to our readers.

March to Moscow. — One of the first objects of consideration is the unparalleled magnitude of the force collected by Bonaparte against the Russian empire. The troops were distributed, as in former campaigns, into divisions and *corps*; the former varying from 8000 to 12,000 men; while the latter, which might be called armies, comprized each several divisions, and are computed to have amounted to the following numbers:

1st corps, under Davoust, — consisting of five divisions, French, effective, about - - -	50,000
2d corps, Oudinot, — three divisions, French -	30,000
3d corps, Ney, — also three divisions, — French, Germans, and Portuguese - - - -	30,000
4th corps, Eugene Beauharnois, — three divisions, — Italians, Spaniards, Illyrians, and French -	37,000
5th corps, Poniatowski, — Poles - - -	30,000
6th corps, St. Cyr, — Bavarians - - -	20,000
7th corps, Regnier, — Saxons - - -	14,000
8th corps, Junot, — Westphalians - - -	14,000
9th corps, Victor, — French, Germans, and Poles	22,000
10th corps, Macdonald, — Prussians, Westphalians, and Poles - - - - -	22,000
Austrians, under Prince Schwartzenberg - -	22,000
Cavalry, — consisting of four corps, and amounting, exclusively of the cavalry assigned to each corps of infantry - - - - - -	28,000
Imperial Guard in cavalry, infantry, and artillery, exclusive of Poles - - - - - -	28,000
Artillery, exclusive of what belonged to the respective corps - - - - - -	13,000
Total in the field - - -	360,000

11th corps, left in Prussia, under Augereau, — Westphalians, Hessians, French, and Saxons -	40,000
Troops in different garrisons, and on the march from various parts of France and Germany -	60,000

This calculation, which is confined to the effective force, and is a full fourth below the apparent number, corresponds with the statement given by Lord Liverpool in the House of Lords; — viz. that, after a deduction for the troops left behind in Prussia and Germany, Bonaparte assailed the Russian empire with 300,000 infantry and 60,000 cavalry. It may occur to many of our readers to ask from what cause he, who could maintain so formidable a force, and was evidently so desirous of accomplishing the reduction of Spain, did not complete its subjugation before he encountered a new enemy in the north. The answer is, that the collection of numerous armies in the north was necessary to the maintenance of his ascendancy, which would soon have received a shock if he had ventured to draw off any considerable number of his legions to the peninsula. Prussia and Austria, which he compressed by these hosts, and even obliged to come forwards in his cause, would in that case have soon taken up arms against him.

The French seem never to have doubted that the Russians would try their fortune, as at Austerlitz and Friedland, in pitched battles; and therefore it was with much surprize (p. 53. 59.) that they saw these once ardent warriors evacuate province after province, and exercise little other hostility than that of clearing the country and causing a scarcity of provisions. Bonaparte appears to have calculated on finishing the campaign by September: but the unexpected delay in his advance, from the want of magazines and the badness of the roads, allowed him to penetrate by that time no farther than to the celebrated field of Borodino; where the Russians at last departed from their plan of incessant retreat, and chose to take the chance of a general engagement. Kutusoff was a General of more combination than we commonly find among the Russians; and although, as events proved, it was not matter of regret that he did not succeed at Borodino, he had adequate motives for fighting in that position. Its strength was so considerable as to cost the French, at all events, a great number of men; while, if the Russians were successful, they would have preserved Moscow, and have annoyed the enemy very considerably in their retreat, fatigued as were both the men and the horses by exhausting marches and bad provisions. The number of combatants seems to have been about 120,000 on either side; and the line of battle was about three miles in extent. The Russian right was but faintly attacked, the great effort being made on their left and centre: their resistance was very strong, but they did not, like our countrymen at Waterloo, succeed in repelling every assault. On the contrary, the high ground near their central redoubt was occupied by the French after two hours of fighting, and could not be retaken in spite of the most gallant efforts. The loss on both sides was dreadful, and eventually nearly equal; though very different at various periods of the day. The seizure of a part of the high ground by the French, and their quickness in planting their artillery on it, enabled them to make great havoc among the Russians who ventured subsequently to the attack; while the preservation by the latter of some of their batteries (particularly the one marked No. 3. in Labaume's plan of the battle) was the cause of serious loss to Bonaparte at the close of the day. No pursuit was made; the Russians carried off their wounded and their artillery; and the French were not certain of their retreat until the next morning.

One of the first acts of Bonaparte, after this great battle and the occupation of Moscow, was to make offers of peace to the Emperor Alexander in a tone of affected moderation. He repeated his professions of personal admiration of that Prince; asserted that it was with reluctance he had advanced to his capital; and declared that he was ready, if desired, to retire and occupy a position on the road to Smolensko during the proposed negociation. Indeed, it can scarcely be doubted that, after the lesson which he had received of the efficacy of the Fabian tactics in defending Russia, he would have subscribed a treaty without exacting more than an acknowlegement of a partial change in the situation of Poland, and the cession of a portion of Lithuania. He felt the urgency of returning westward, but hoped to receive such an answer as might enable him to give the appearance of concession to this measure of necessity. Here, however, he was caught in his own snare; for he waited until the season of retreat was past.

Retreat from Moscow. — At last came the time when this proud conqueror, who had not been accustomed to turn his back on an enemy, found it indispensable to retreat. The motives which impelled him to take this tardy resolution were doubtless the determination of the Russian government to refuse any negociation; the deficiency of supplies for his army around Moscow; and the threatening attitude of the army advancing from Moldavia. These considerations seem to have induced him to adopt preparatory measures so early as the 10th or 12th of October; although, as usual, he concealed his motives, and professed to act from resentment of the sudden attack made on the 18th of October on the body commanded by Murat to the south of Moscow. The troops in that city were ordered to begin a retrograde march in the afternoon of that day, and proceeded in a south-west direction until the 24th, the day of the obstinate action of Malo-Jaroslavitz. In fighting that desperate conflict, Napoleon may have been actuated, not as some suppose by a desire to move to the southward, but by a wish to impress the Russians with that notion so as to have the field open for his retreat to Smolensko. Whatever was the impulse, he found it necessary to make his retreat in a north-west instead of a south-west direction; falling, after a few days' march, into the great road along which he had advanced to Moscow. The army had a large train of baggage, and in the waggons was some flour brought from the Russian capital: but the country afforded scarcely any supplies, and the soldiers were soon obliged to resort to horse-flesh; the inhabitants having been frightened from their homes, and the dread of hovering parties of Cossacks preventing the foragers from venturing to a distance. The troops, particularly the rear-corps under Davoust, now began to suffer the evils arising from the rash plan of making war without magazines: a plan equally injurious from the extent of its privations and the subversion of discipline; and the foremost divisions of the French army, irritated by their sufferings, burned and destroyed all that was left standing in the villages, without considering the injury to their comrades in the rear.

The daily marches of the army, though varying from unavoidable circumstances, were on an average about eleven miles. The nights were cold, but the days were as yet clear and pleasant. Such was the state of things during the first week of the retreat. It was on the 1st of November, and on the stoppage of a quantity of baggage near a river, that the Cossacks made their first attack: this was repulsed without difficulty: but, on the 3d, a more obstinate and serious contest took place near Viasma, where a large body of Cossacks and above 20,000 infantry under General Miloradovitch, fell on the retreating force, and threw them into considerable confusion. The Russian corps had reached Viasma from Malo-Jaroslavitz by a diagonal road. The loss of the French was serious; and that it was not greater seems to have been owing to the exertions of the third corps under Ney, who maintained a commanding position against all the efforts of the enemy: but it was remarked that, firmly as the French stood their ground, they had no longer that fine appearance which had been conspicuous in the earlier part of the campaign.—It now became necessary for this hitherto victorious host to march before day-break, on purpose to get the start of the Russians; and much confusion took place during the darkness, from the fall and exhaustion of the horses, the loss of baggage, and the plundering of the abandoned effects. Instead of a regular line, detached bodies, composed chiefly of dismounted horsemen, now proceeded along in disorder, ready to spread an alarm whenever they were approached by a party of Cossacks. Much time was lost also in driving the waggons along the narrow bridges, every one hastening forwards and blocking up the passage: yet the losses of the army were confined to horses and baggage during the first week of November. On the 6th, however, a cloudy atmosphere announced a change of weather, and the ground soon became covered with snow; which doubled the difficulty of the march, caused the death of thousands of horses from oppressive labour by day and want of shelter by night, and added, in the case of the soldier, the sufferings of cold to those of hunger. The situation of the troops was now pitiable: but they kept on their way, hopeful of relief at Witepsk or Smolensko, where they were promised ample magazines and a suspension of their weary march. On the 9th, coming to the banks of the river Vop, they had the mortification to see a great part of the army and of the baggage stopped, in consequence of the bridge, which had been begun, being carried away by the rise of the water: a stream which in their invading march had hardly excited their observation, but which was now swollen to a rapid river, fordable only at a few places. Some of the baggage was dragged over a ford, but much was necessarily abandoned on the other side; where it was pillaged, partly by the rear-guard, and partly by the Cossacks, whose sudden approach obliged the former to wade in terror through the current. It was on this occasion that Prince Eugene wrote to Berthier the letter describing the distress of the army which was intercepted by the Russians, and printed at the time in our newspapers. Numbers of prisoners, and quantities of artillery and baggage, now fell into the hands of the Russians: while those who remained were deprived of the provisions contained in the baggage-waggons, and obliged to pass night and day without the comfort of either bread or refreshing liquor, supporting life only by means of horse-flesh and melted ice. One and only one day's respite was enjoyed by Labaume's corps, in the small town of Donkhoutchina; which, being out of the road to Smolensko, was untouched, and afforded them a few provisions as well as a covering from the howling blast: but they here received the distressing intelligence that they could not proceed, as they had intended, to Witepsk, Wittgenstein having just occupied it; and that they must all crowd into Smolensko. Thither, accordingly, they marched, in the hopes of finding provisions and protection from the 9th corps, (under Victor,) which was still fresh.

'We were now only two leagues from Smolensko, and the tower of its celebrated church, which we already saw at a distance, flattering us with the sweetest illusions, seemed the most lovely object in the whole perspective. An hour before we arrived, we left the fourteenth division, with the few Bavarian horse which remained, to observe and hold in check the Cossacks, who, increasing in number every moment, seemed determined to follow us to the very walls of Smolensko. But what was our grief, when we learned, in the very suburbs of the city, that the ninth corps was gone, that it had not even halted at Smolensko, and that the provisions were all consumed! A thunderbolt falling at our feet would have confounded us less than did this news. Our senses were for a moment suspended.'—'As we were musing on the sadness of our lot, its rigour was somewhat alleviated by the promise of a little rice, flour, and biscuit, which yet remained in the magazines.'—'We descended toward the Nieper, and endeavoured to enter the city. Beyond the bridge was the junction of the road of Doroghobouï, with that from Valentina, which all the other divisions had taken; and as these corps had not passed the Wop, they yet retained a great part of their artillery and baggage. The numerous carriages, which flocked in on every side, mingled with the foot-soldiers and the cavalry; and all of them attempting to rush into Smolensko, where they had been promised some rations of bread, the greatest confusion ensued. The entrance was completely choked up, and more than three hours elapsed ere we could penetrate into the city.'—'With a mournful presentiment, each enquired tremblingly, and with the most profound mystery, where were the armies to which we looked for deliverance? "Where is the Duke of Reggio?" one secretly asked his companion.—"He wished to have protected the Dwina, but he was forced to abandon Polotsk, and to fall back upon Lepel," was the whispered reply.—"And where is the Duke of Belluno?"—"He could not leave Sienna."—"And where the Russian army of Volhynia?"—"It has repulsed Prince Schwartzenberg; it has made itself master of Minsk, and it is advancing against us."—"Ah! if this news be true," repeated the first to himself, "our situation is truly desperate; and one great battle on the borders of the Nieper or the Beresina, will complete our ruin."—'As we lay under some wretched thatch, and indulged in many a melancholy reflection, we were suddenly roused by unexpected cries. "Rise, rise; they pillage the magazines." Springing immediately on our feet, and seizing a sack, a pannier, or a bottle, we exclaimed to each other, as we rushed out, "I will go to the flour magazine, you go to the magazine of brandy; let the servants run to the place where the meat, the biscuit, the pease, are kept." In an instant the room was empty. After a considerable interval our friends returned, and informed us, that the soldiers, dying with hunger, and no longer able to await the dilatory distribution of the provisions, had, in spite of the guard, forced the gates of the magazines, and begun to pillage them. Some came back with their clothes covered with flour, and even pierced with the bayonet, bearing on their shoulders sacks of flour, which they had taken by force from the soldiers who were dividing it.'

'(November 14.) The Emperor, who was at Smolensko, when we arrived there, received every day disastrous news of his armies. That which most affected him, was the defeat of General Baraguay D'Hilliers, sent on the road of Kaluga, with General Augereau, to oppose Count Orloff Denisoff, who threatened to cut off our retreat between Smolensko and Krasnoë.'—'(November 15.)

The order was given to continue our march, but at a very late hour, from the delay occasioned by the dilatory distribution of the whole contents of the magazines.'—'The road was entirely covered with cannon and ammunition-waggons, which they had had scarce time to spike, or to blow up. Horses in the agonies of death were seen at every step, and sometimes whole teams, sinking under their labours, fell together. All the defiles which the carriages could not pass, were filled with muskets, helmets, and breast-plates. Trunks broken open, portmanteaus torn to pieces, and garments of every kind were scattered over the valley. At every little distance, we met with trees, at the foot of which the soldiers had attempted to light a fire, but the poor wretches had perished ere they could accomplish their object.'

Such was the condition of the French army (or rather of the surviving portion of it) when it encountered at Krasnoë, twenty-five miles on this side of Smolensko, a numerous division of Russians. Kutusoff had soon discovered that Bonaparte's plan, notwithstanding his south-west march from Moscow, and his obstinacy in the action of Malo-Jaroslavitz, was to retreat by Smolensko; and accordingly he made the main body of his army file off diagonally to the left, in the direction of Krasnoë, a position which would give them the means of sweeping the road of retreat, and probably of intercepting the rear-guard. Though not annoyed by an enemy, the Russians must have suffered greatly on a march of nearly two hundred miles, from deficiency of stores and lodging during the inclemency of the night; and, though their course was somewhat shorter than that of the French, the road was probably worse, so that they must have made great efforts before they succeeded in bringing up any part of their artillery. Three distinct actions took place at this spot; the first, on the evening of the 15th, with Bonaparte and the Imperial Guard; the second, more serious, on the 16th, with Prince Eugene and the 4th corps; and the third, which was very dreadful, with the corps of Davoust and of Ney. Kutusoff had prudently kept back his principal effort for the latter; and, although Bonaparte and Prince Eugene marched back with the less exhausted of their followers to occupy a part of the Russian force, the result was not only a very heavy loss to Davoust's corps, but the total capture or dispersion of that of Ney, who escaped with a body of horse by flying from the great road and crossing the Dnieper.

The first period of Bonaparte's retreat may be said to end at Krasnoë. His remnant of force was now beyond the reach of Kutusoff's infantry, and in a road supplied with some provisions and villages for nightly shelter: but the numbers of this once powerful army were now diminished to 30,000 men. — The leading object of the Russian Generals, first of Kutusoff and afterward of Wittgenstein, was not to attempt a direct attack on the French army, but to confine Napoleon and his auxiliary corps to a line of road which would bring them eventually within the reach of the Moldavian army. The distance from Krasnoë to the Beresina was about 120 miles; and the daily march of the French was, on an average, twelve miles. On the way, they received intelligence that the van-guard of Tzchitchagoff had reached the banks of that river, and after a severe action had driven the Poles from the bridge of Borisou, the intended line of retreat. Now came the critical moment, in which Wittgenstein and Tzchitchagoff hoped to combine their operations so as to cut off the French army and its far-famed leader; the former having advanced from the north, the latter from the south, pressing back the corps respectively opposed to them. We heard of these events in England, and our hopes were high: but Bonaparte had still at his disposal the corps of Oudinot, St. Cyr, and Victor; which, with the addition of the Poles under Dembrowski, might form an effective force of 50,000 men. His object now was to make such a disposition, or, in plain words, such a sacrifice of them as might cause somewhat of a correspondent sacrifice on the part of the Russians, and procure to himself and his officers the means of escape. With this view, he ordered Oudinot to detach a strong body in the direction of Borisou, and drive the Moldavian van-guard across the river. In consequence, the Russians burned the bridge, and proceeded to occupy along the right bank several commanding stations, where they expected the French to attempt a passage. Bonaparte, however, succeeded in manœuvering so as to divert the attention of their main army from a spot considerably above Borisou, and near the village of Studzianka, where two bridges were actually thrown across; the river not being of great width, and a body of engineers having been sent forwards from Moscow in the beginning of October to get ready the necessary materials. An eminence, moreover, enabled the French to sweep the bank on the other side with their artillery; so that, notwithstanding the opposition of a body of Russians, the bridges were completed; and, Oudinot's corps having crossed, the hostile force was obliged to retreat. On the 27th of November, at three in the afternoon, Bonaparte passed with his guards; and the 4th corps, under Eugene, passed in the night: but numbers remained behind on account of the difficulty of conveying over the baggage, which had accumulated at this spot. Next morning, at eight o'clock, one of the bridges broke down, and scenes of great confusion occurred on the other. By this time, a strong body of the Moldavian army attacked the corps of Oudinot on the right bank; and Wittgenstein soon afterward came up with the corps of Victor, which had been stationed on the left to act as a rear-guard to the passing troops. Wittgenstein succeeded, after a long contest, in capturing or driving over the opposing force; and, the latter burning the bridge in their retreat, the artillery, the baggage, and the sick and wounded to the number of 20,000, fell into the hands of the Russians. Nevertheless, Oudinot, being strengthened by the troops that crossed, and having a considerable body of cavalry, was able to drive back the Russians, and to clear the way for his surviving countrymen to retreat or rather to fly in the direction of Zembin. Tzchitchagoff has been accused of not acting with sufficient promptitude in bringing a force against the point at which the French had made such serious preparations for accomplishing their passage.

Here ended what has been called the second period of the retreat; and, from this time, little fighting took place; all being terror and confusion on the part of the fugitives, numbers of whom fell daily under the severity of the elements or the spear of the Cossacks. The Russian infantry could not overtake them, but Tzchitchagoff's horsemen pressed them on the left, while Platoff and his followers harassed them on the right. Bonaparte was now cut off from communication with his distant corps, and obliged to fly straight forwards, without the power of transmitting orders of retreat to Schwartzenberg on the one hand, or to Macdonald on the other. That he was not entirely cut off was owing to the aid of the Bavarian corps under St. Cyr, and to the coming up of a division of Neapolitans from Wilna, and of a body of French under Loison from Königsberg. These different corps perished almost all in succession, without effecting any other object than the preservation of those of the officers of the Grand Army who had still the means of proceeding on horseback, or who happened to have gold in sufficient quantity to tempt the Jews inhabiting the villages to bring forth their provisions. At Wilna, a multitude of prisoners fell into the hands of the Cossacks; a few miles on this side of that city, the military chest was distributed or abandoned; and the pursuit in a collective body ceased on the Niemen, the dispersion of the fugitives having become such as to make it needless to follow them any farther in force. — From Moscow to Kowno on the Niemen, the distance was 650 miles.

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One of the most distressing effects of prolonged suffering among the soldiers was a total insensibility to the miseries of each other. Those who had formerly been affectionate comrades now entered into bitter quarrels for a morsel of bread; and, on the fall of an exhausted associate, the first thought of those around him was to appropriate his clothing, or any thing that could afford protection, to themselves. Subordination could scarcely be said to exist after the troops had left Smolensko: but the superior officers still endeavoured to keep it up until the departure of Bonaparte (on the 6th of December) at Smorgoni, after which discipline was at an end, and every one confined his thoughts to his personal escape.

The Cossacks certainly performed wonders in continuing the pursuit during so many weeks through frost and snow; both men and horses supporting fatigues which would have been wholly beyond the endurance of regular troops: but, in point of courage, we find it necessary to make a considerable deduction from the praises formerly lavished on them (see M. R. Vol. lxviii.) by Sir R. Wilson. They seldom ventured to attack even a small body of infantry, if standing in a firm attitude; and they were accustomed, even during the flight of the French, to wheel their horses round as soon as they observed a detachment in a situation to fire on them.

Computed Losses on both sides. — It may not be uninstructive to attempt, in the next place, a calculation of the respective forces distributed in different points during the campaign, and of the numbers that fell: premising that the statement can only be an approximation to accuracy, and is meant for no other purpose than to correct the extravagant assertion circulated with respect to events which certainly stood in no need of exaggeration.

The troops which penetrated beyond Smolensko under Bonaparte consisted of the Imperial Guard, of the chief part of the cavalry, and of the several corps of Davoust, Ney, Prince Eugene, and Junot, with a part of that of Poniatowski.

In the outset of the campaign, this force seems to have amounted in *effectives* to	230,000
There were also near the Dwina, under Oudinot and St. Cyr, about	50,000
In Courland, under Macdonald,	22,000
In Volhynia, under Schwartzenberg and Regnier	36,000
Victor's corps, formed by fresh arrivals after the beginning of the campaign, and stationed first in the Palatinate of Mscislaw, but afterward ordered to the Dwina on the advance of Wittgenstein	22,000
Total	360,000

The loss of the French in men and horses was very considerable in the advance, owing to the want of magazines, the wretched state of the roads, the frequency of marshes, the badness of provisions, and the uniform plan of the Russians to lay waste the country in the line of march. A striking proof of this fact is exhibited in the distressed state of the 15th division, (belonging to the 4th corps) which, coming up after the main body, arrived at Borodino on the day following the battle; and of which, though they had not seen an enemy, the numbers were so reduced and the strength of the men remaining under arms was so much diminished, that Prince Eugene found it necessary (Original, p. 162.) to place them in the reserve. It is thus no exaggeration to suppose that, in the long marches through Lithuania and Russia, and in the various battles to that of Borodino inclusive, one half of the force belonging to the grand army had perished, or been disabled by wounds or sickness from keeping the field; and the invalids, in the sequel, either sank under their complaints or fell into the hands of the Russians: causing thus a loss before the occupation of Moscow of about 115,000: while the loss from the sword and sickness during the occupation of Moscow, at the battles of Tarottlina and Malo-Jaroslavitz, in the retreat as far as Krasnoë, and in the three actions there, was 85,000; — half of which are computed to have perished or been killed, and the other half to have been made prisoners.

Bonaparte's army was thus reduced to 30,000 men at the time of its forming a junction with the corps of Oudinot and Victor. The former, including the Bavarians under St. Cyr, had already suffered severely in the conflicts with Wittgenstein on the Dwina; the corps of Victor had suffered less: but they had now to contend with the armyof Tzchitchagoff on the one hand, with that of Wittgenstein on the other, and with the dreadful inclemency of the season. As from this time forwards there was an end to official documents, it would be in vain to attempt a specification of the dates of the dreadful diminution of numbers that occurred in the flight from the Beresina to the Niemen. Destruction here overtook a portion of troops not comprehended in our list of the effective force at the beginning of the warfare; so that the havoc in this dreadful rout, when added to the previous loss sustained by the corps in question during the campaign, gives a number not short of 100,000 men; making a total loss, from all causes, of 300,000 men. The reader will bear in mind that this enumeration does not comprize the Austrian, Saxon, and Prussian troops; who, being on different stations, and finding means to withdraw from the hostility of the Russians, suffered in a less dreadful proportion.—Thus were broken the main parts of the formidable engine which had so long rivetted the chains of the Continent; and it seemed like the effect of a particular dispensation of Providence, that disaster should have overtaken those of Bonaparte's troops on whose attachment he could depend, while it passed with comparative lightness over those temporary allies who waited only a favourable opportunity to take up arms in assertion of their independence.

The next topic of calculation is the probable loss of the Russians, from this dreadful campaign. In the long marches of July and August, they suffered less than the French, the plan of retreat being previously arranged, and the supplies of the country (such as they were) being at their disposal. Still, the ravages of sickness must have been considerable, both in the marches of their troops through Lithuania and in the still longer march from Moldavia, in consequence of the uncomfortable nature of the country, and the miserable arrangement of their hospitals and magazines. In the different battles, up to that of Borodino inclusive, we shall probably not be far from the truth in putting their computed loss on an equality with that of the French. Both parties exposed their men without mercy; and both were greatly deficient in the means of recovering the wounded. It is in the retreat from Moscow, therefore, that the great disproportion of relative destruction took place; the Russians suffering indeed from insufficiency of provisions and clothing, but being, on the other hand, more inured to the climate, and not pressed by a pursuing force. Kutusoff's army continued the pursuit during two hundred miles, and relaxed their efforts at Krasnoë. Wittgenstein's and Tzchitchagoff's corps then pushed on; following up the fresh bodies of the French, until it became necessary to confine the task to the cavalry. So far, the Russian loss was comparatively moderate: but there remained for all these troops a march through the dreary and unwholesome levels of Poland; a march which must necessarily be accomplished before the return of summer, in order to succour their Prussian allies. The sickness caused by this great exertion may account for the inferior force with which the Russians appeared in Germany at the battles of Lutzen and Bautzen: as well as for the conclusion of an armistice for nearly three months, at the time when it was of the utmost urgency to press Bonaparte. Taking all these circumstances together, we cannot put down the loss of the Russians in 1812, by the sword, hunger, and disease, at less than 200,000 men.

Those who look on this amount as exaggerated will do well to refer to the statement given by Frederick II., in his Memoirs, of the comparative losses of the different nations in the war of 1756; in which he paints, in striking terms, the wretched management of Russian hospitals. Our benevolent countryman, Mr. Howard, was surprized, when travelling in the south of Russia in 1789, to learn the number that had perished from this cause in the Turkish war; and even Sir Robert Wilson, partial as he is to these rude inhabitants of the north, admits that their commissariat is deplorable, and that the care of the sick and wounded has but lately entered into their military system. The contempt of Suwarrof for the medical art is well known.

It thus became a matter of the first necessity towards the prosecution of the war, that Austria should throw her force into the scale of the allies. Though Bonaparte was never able to re-instate his cavalry, or to form a large body of firm infantry, yet the quickness of the French in making a certain progress in the use of arms, and his unrestrained disposal of the resources of the country, enabled him to balance the united efforts of Germany and Russia during several months. Even in Spain, notwithstanding the drafts of old soldiers and the loss sustained at Vittoria, a force was collected which ,in the latter end of July pressed our army very closely in the neighbourhood of Pampeluna; while the corps of Suchet found means to dispute with us the possession of Catalonia. All this tends to shew the solidity of the fabric which this oppresser of nations had constructed for the subjugation of Europe; and, of the multitudes who were thus daily exposed to the loss of life, very few ever thought of relaxing in attachment to their leader. Among all the hardships of the campaigns of 1812, 1813, and 1814, we recollect no example of deficient zeal, much less of breach of duty, on the part of French officers; and desertion, when it occurred among the soldiers, was the consequence of unavoidable necessity, scarcely ever of a conviction that they were wantonly sacrificed by their chief. By opening to them the road to promotion, by working on their vanity, by affecting to share their sufferings and their dangers, he had succeeded in persuading his army that he loved them with paternal tenderness. Nothing, therefore, can be more misplaced than the declamations on Bonaparte's insatiable ambition, which M. Labaume puts so often into the mouth of the fugitives from Russia. These unhappy men were ready to attribute their hardships to any other cause than his extravagant ambition: exclaiming at one time against the premature inclemency of the season, at another against the treachery of their allies, and not unfrequently against the commander of some particular corps. In all this, they re-echoed with blind credulity the impressions which were artfully circulated from head-quarters, Bonaparte feeling no remorse in holding up one brave officer after another to the resentment of his comrades. It was thus that (p. 343.) he broke the heart of General Baraguey D'Hilliers, who had found it impossible to stop the advance of Kutusoff to Krasnoë; that he drove to suicide (p. 243.) a Major whose convoy had been seized by the Cossacks; and, finally, that he fixed a public affront on Murat for not making a stand at Wilna or Königsberg, with his wretched remnant of force.

We shall now conclude our notice with a few remarks on M. Labaume's narrative as a literary composition. In point of panegyric, he is extremely lavish; almost every officer, whether French or Russian, being introduced with a complimentary epithet: but, in general, he is sufficiently impartial; though he avoids any adequate acknowlegement of the extent of the French loss in the battles of Smolensko and Borodino. Such an omission we are disposed to overlook, when we consider that he probably had not access to official returns: but another and a more serious objection to the trust-worthiness of the book arises from what may be styled "the artifice of its composition." Instead of the plain tale which might be expected from a soldier, we have an apostrophe, an harangue, or a declamation put into the mouth of some particular character, on every occasion of importance, from the time of the occupation of Moscow. These effusions thicken as the retreat continues; so that, in the latter part of the volume, we find scarcely a paragraph without a string of lamentations on Bonaparte's insatiable ambition, and the miseries which it produced. The circumstances, we grant, were abundantly mournful: but the soldiers, as we have just stated, did not indulge in such reflections. It is in truth a memorable circumstance that, amid all their sufferings, by night and by day, from hunger and from cold, none of them thought of aiming at the life of him whom they might have regarded as the author of all their miseries. Yet opportunity certainly was not wanting, since Bonaparte marched among them a part of the way on foot. So blind were they even lately to the real character of this cold-blooded calculator, that, after the rout at Waterloo, the fault was more generally laid on his lieutenants than on himself.

The translation of M. Labaume's detail is very careless and imperfect. We meet sometimes with vulgarisms and marks of haste: but the most frequent and perhaps the worst mistakes are those in which the errors arise from a half-knowlege of the French language. Thus, (p. 136.) the words "*mouvement qui devoit être appuyé par celui de la division Gerard*," — meaning "a movement that was about to be supported" (as was actually done) "by Gerard's division," — are rendered, 'a movement which ought to have been immediately seconded by Gerard's division,' as if a failure had occurred on the part of the latter. Again, in p. 337., the words "*Veillons au salut de l'Empire*" are translated, 'Let us *awake* and save the Empire.'

ART. IX. *Selections from the Popular Poetry of the Hindoos.* Arranged and translated by Thomas Duer Broughton, Esq. Major of the Hon. East India Company's Service in Bengal, &c. Crown 8vo. pp. 156. 7s. 6d. Boards. Martin.

THIS volume proceeds from the pen of the ingenious author of "Letters from a Mahrattah Camp;" * and both works owe their origin to the same circumstance, namely, the residence of Major Broughton in the camp of one of the principal Mahrattah chieftains. During that period, he applied himself to an inquiry into the manners and customs of the Hindoos; and to the formation of a collection of such pieces of their popular poetry as he could extract from the memories of those persons, chiefly military, with whom he had the opportunity of conversing. On this point, he will best speak for himself:

'It was my chance to be placed in a situation in the camp of one of the principal Mahrattah chieftains where I had more leisure hours than I knew well how to fill up; and where, being almost entirely secluded from European society, I was happy to grasp at any means which offered of employing that time, which, though so valuable in itself, is but too often found to lie a heavy burden upon our hands. To converse with the natives, and to acquire in that way some knowledge of their habits and customs, had always been a source of amusement to me. In the situation alluded to, I had greater inducements and more opportunities to indulge this inclination, and as I always found the Hindoos more intelligent and communicative, more abounding in interesting matter, and withal much less opinionated and arrogant, than their fellow-subjects of the Moohumedan faith, it was to them I most commonly addressed myself.

'There is perhaps no set of men in India better qualified to afford the kind of information I sought for than the Sipahees of our own army. They include every class of Hindoos; though by far the greater proportion belong to the two higher orders of Brahmuns and Rajpoots. They are commonly the sons of respectable farmers, from every province of Hindoostan, and often have received tolerably good educations before they quit their homes. The Brahmuns especially are generally well versed in the common principles and ceremonies of their religion, and the historical legends connected with it; and not seldom have attained to the degree of Pundit, when they enlist as soldiers in the Company's army. They soon lose many of their early prejudices; become inquisitive respecting the manners and customs of the country of their officers; and are always willing to repay any information on such subjects, by communicating in return all that they know of their own. It was precisely from such a man that I obtained the greater part of the poems contained in this volume. I had remarked that in talking upon any subject, he frequently quoted the verses of some favourite poet; and one day, when he had done so with particular emphasis, and had afterwards expatiated with evident delight upon their merit, I desired him to write them down and explain them to me. They were the *Dohras*, Nos. 1. and 2., and I thought I perceived so much simplicity and delicacy in the ideas, and such neatness in the points they contained, that I expressed a wish for further information respecting the dialect in which they were written, and that he would make a collection for me of similar compositions. My new studies soon became known, and many individuals of the same rank in life contributed to increase my stores by voluntary offers of all the information they possessed upon the subject; evincing at the same time such evident symptoms of gratified pride at the distinction conferred upon their rustic lore, as led me to follow up my pursuit with increased satisfaction.

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* See Rev. Vol. lxxiv. N. S. p. 395.

'It is then from the verbal communications of Sipahees, and others not raised above them in the general scale of society, that I have collected the poems which compose this little volume; they are therefore strictly "popular," and as such are offered to my countrymen: who will be pleased to find, (at least if I have succeeded in conveying a tolerably just idea of the originals,) in the popular poetry of their fellow-subjects of India, some breathings of the Doric muse, that would not have disgraced the pastoral reeds of Greece or Scotland. I have endeavoured to make the translations as close as possible; many of them are literal, at least as much so as a versified, for I dare not say a poetical translation can be: and I have seldom, I believe, altered an expression, or ventured to add or suppress an image or a sentiment.'

It is most frequently the case in our eastern empire, that the natives and the Europeans meet in the relation of inferior and superior, of subjects and governors, and with all the disadvantages which a difference of language and of religion creates; circumstances that prevent the familiar intercourse, without which a perfect knowlege of the manners and customs of the former can scarcely be gained: — still less any intimate acquaintance with their popular poetry, which is always the result of natural, original, and unconstrained feelings. The Major's situation in the camp was particularly calculated to afford him unusual opportunities, by enabling him to put himself as nearly on a level with those from whom he sought the desired information as he might deem necessary for his purpose; and we cannot doubt that more reliance may be placed on information thus acquired by a friendly and familiar intercourse, than on any that could be procured when either fear or interest was the only inducement. Sir William Jones frequently complains of the difficulties which he found in eliciting information on oriental subjects from the natives, and (if we remember rightly) very often charges those who professed to make such communication with intentional misrepresentation. Whether, in such cases, falsehood proceeded only from a love of exaggeration and of the marvellous, or from more culpable motives, the effect would be the same; and it is probable that it was the elevation of the situation which he filled, and from which he could not easily separate himself, that was the immediate inducement to the falsehood.

Such being Major Broughton's means of inquiry, the present volume may apparently be received as an indisputable representation of poetry that is popular among the Hindoos. Persian poetry has long been celebrated; and we suppose that few of our poetical readers are wholly unacquainted with it, since the translations of Sir William Jones and other writers have very favourably introduced a large portion of it into our language. Mr. Carlisle's elegant specimens have also given our countrymen some familiarity with Arabic poetry. The characteristic differences between those national styles cannot fail to strike every reader. The poetry of Persia, —remarkable from the earliest periods as the country of pomp and ornamental splendour, —is chiefly characterized by the brilliancy of its images, and the warmth and luxuriance of the colouring which it gives to them. With it, beauty does not satisfy unless it be worked up with every grace that art can bestow; nor can love charm, unless its delights be quickened by those excitements which goblets of wine and pillows of orange-flowers and roses afford: it is every where showering around diamonds, rubies, and emeralds, —luscious fruits and delicious liquors, — fragrant flowers and melodious sounds: — in short, it is always busied with objects of luxurious splendour and voluptuous enjoyment.*

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* The Persians deem themselves the best if not the only poets in the world. A good idea of their *taste* may be given by the following anecdote. During the residence of one of our recent missions in that country, the conversation of a party at the house of one of the courtiers turning on poetry, the Persians would not allow that

The Arabic poetry is not less remarkable for characters which accord with those of the people among whom it is born; nervous, rapid, and plain, it celebrates the hunter and the warrior, the fields of which the utmost luxuriance is pasturage, and the state of society in which the bow and the sword are more valued than the ornamented quiver and scabbard. The Hindoo poems are of a nature entirely different from either of these. They have neither the pomp, the ornament, and the metaphorical brilliancy of the Persian, nor the sententious manner and plainness of the Arabic. Such of them as are unconnected with mythology display a delicacy of feeling, not without sufficient warmth, and in many points resembling the Grecian manner: but the leading characteristic of them, as of the people with whom they originate, appears to be a natural simplicity equally distant from coldness and from affectation.

The volume before us, however, contains too much of the mythology of Hindoostan. We would not, indeed, describe *that* mythology as less entertaining than the Grecian, except in being more elaborate; and, were it connected as intimately with our early associations and with as much and as excellent poetry, the one might be as interesting as the other: but this is not the case; and it is impossible for a taste formed in a classical manner to take delight in the monstrous and endless mixture of metaphysics, tradition, and fable, which constitutes the mythology of the Indian peninsula. We might specify, it is true, many points of positive similarity between the two systems of mythology to which we have alluded, or between every system of mythology that exists; and none more striking than that which prevails between the amorous adventures of the Jupiter of the Greeks

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that the English could have any that deserved notice; and a citation of many of our best specimens did not remove this impression, till one of the party quoted two well known lines,

"The dews of the ev'ning most carefully shun,
Those tears of the earth for the loss of the sun,"

the turn of which is exactly in the Persian taste. This citation at once changed the opinion of the party; and the circumstance having been mentioned at court, the King caused the passage to be translated by his principal poet, frequently afterward mentioning it with admiration, and expressing a desire to be farther acquainted with our poetry. — Still, notwithstanding the general glitter and luxuriance of Persian poetry, it must be admitted that much of the work of Sadi is exquisitely tender and moral: but then it must be remembered that the taste of Sadi was acquired during his residence at Bagdad, and is therefore rather of Arabic than of Persian origin.

and the Krishna of the Hindoos. The latter with his 16,008 wives (exclusive of the Gopees) has a more oriental air; and the former, who indulged only in casual variety, better represents the taste of the south of Europe: while, in the mythology of the northern nations, (such is the effect of climate on the human imagination,) this characteristic of the leading deity is not to be traced.

Before we make any extracts from Major Broughton's translations, we shall lay before our readers the part of his preface that contains an account of the different poems of which his selection consists:

'The most common forms in which Hindee poetry presents itself, are *Dohras* and *Kubits*. The former word literally signifies couplets; though the measure approaches nearer to our common quatrain of eight and six syllables, in which the second and fourth lines only rhyme. Such a stanza, written at length in two lines, would exactly represent a Hindee *Dohra*. In the following pages, the lines of the Dohras are divided for the sake of convenience; but in the original manuscripts they are commonly written at length, as prose is written by us, with a distinguishing mark at the end of each line, and another at the conclusion of each couplet. In its nature, the Dohra somewhat resembles the epigram of Europe; generally containing a neat point, and always being in itself a complete sentence. Two Dohras are frequently coupled together, the one containing an observation and the other a reply or retort; and sometimes a longer poem is entirely composed in separate Dohras, as is No. 4.; but I have never met with an instance of the sense of one Dohra being carried on into a second. The popular work of Biparee Lal, called the *Sutsue, ya,* or "seven hundred," is composed in Dohras; and contains the number which its title implies. It is a book held in high estimation among the Hindoos, its lines are quoted upon all occasions, and many of the Dohras in this collection are to be found in its pages.

'The Kubits are short poems, for which I know no strictly appropriate English term. They are a kind of long stanza, written in various but regulated measures; and consist of a fixed number of lines, which are sometimes equal, and sometimes alternately long and short. Each couplet, or two lines, is called a *took;* and it is by the number of letters of which each *took* is composed, that the measure is determined. The regular *Kubit* consists of four *tooks*, and there are five measures in which they may be written, according to the fancy or genius of the author; it is necessary however that the several *tooks* of a poem should be of one measure.'

The Kubit is again classed under various heads, according to the subject on which it is written.

'When the praise of the gods is sung, the poems are styled *Bukt-marg;* the former word signifying devotion, the latter, way or path. When amatory, they are called *Rusadik*, a literal translation of the English term; and when war is the subject of a poem, it is termed either *Atunk*, or *Bheer;* the former, which means fate, fortune, &c. when the day is gained by any unforeseen and auspicious event: the latter signifying conflict, when a battle is to be described. Those poems which consist of moral sentences are called *Jugt-burnun;* from *jugt* the world, and *burnun,* way or mode.' —

'The term *Bishn-pud* denotes the subjects of these poems, which always relate to one or other of the *Avatas,* or incarnations of Bishn; generally to those of Krishna or Ramhchundur. They are intended to be sung, and are written in alternately long and short lines, with one of a different measure; which in singing is rèpeated as a chorus after every couplet. These poems were formerly chaunted by the bards who composed them, in the presence of the Hindoo princes; and in modern days, to be able to perform in this way is an accomplishment held in high estimation, and which ensures to its possessor the meed of universal applause. The Bishn-puds of Soor-Das are admired beyond all others. He lived in the time of Acbar, and enjoyed a great share of that Emperor's favour. The Hindoos always speak of him with enthusiasm; they call him "a divine poet;" and say that, though blind, he received more light by his intellectual eyes, than any other mortal by his corporeal ones. One or two of his poems are inserted in this collection, and, in my opinion, they constitute its greatest ornament.'

Major B. observes very justly on the inelegance and absurdity, prevalent in the Kubits, of introducing the name of the author in every one of them, not in connection with the subject, but simply by insertion wherever the writer pleased and it would not be inconsistent with the metre. He remarks that the Rusadik or amatory poems are the most in circulation, as we might expect in the poetry of every eastern nation, in which the intercourse of the sexes forms a larger portion of the business of life than in our more temperate regions; and he points out the distinction between the delicacy and chasteness of the Hindoo descriptions of female beauty, and the luxuriance and voluptuousness of the Persian. He then proceeds thus, in a passage which conveys a very lively idea of the people whom he is describing:

'If we were to indulge our fancy in pourtraying the characters of the ancient Hindoos from these specimens of their popular poetry, how amiable would they appear! gentle, simple in their manners, alive to strong impressions, and peculiarly susceptible of the tender passion. And if due allowance be made for the difference between poetical delineation, and the fainter lines of real life, I do not know that the picture would be so highly coloured as not to bear some resemblance to their descendants of the present day; especially when unsophisticated by an admixture of foreign manners. They still speak the language of poetry and love, though expressed in a dialect that is perfectly rustic. To what is this to be ascribed? not to the peculiar structure of the language, itself, for it consists mostly of short expressive words composed of consonants; and abounds more in monosyllables, with the exception perhaps of the Chinese, than any language with which I am acquainted. Neither can it be attributed to the polish of education or society; for I have generally observed that those Hindoos express themselves most elegantly and metaphorically, who are born in villages most remote from large towns, and the resorts of Europeans or Moosulmuns. I once heard a young Brahmun, about fifteen years of age, who had not quitted his native village in a distant part of Oude above four months, interrogated by another, why he was so late in returning to camp? He had been at a Mela or fair, held in the neighbourhood of Gwaliur; at which all the women of the city, young as well as old, appeared without reserve: and when he heard the question, "O," cried he in his Doric tongue, while an expression of pleasure sparkled in his fine hazel eyes, "*Buhar ko lootut raha*;" "I've been plundering the spring." Another time, when I had reprimanded a lad about the same age, for calling a respectable elderly man old, who was very ambitious of appearing young, "Why," said he, "his whiskers are like *peoore*," threads of fresh spun cotton. May I venture upon another instance? it relates to my young favourite who "plundered the spring;" and will serve to show, that these interesting people are not merely metaphorical, but actually possessed of the most tender and amiable feelings. His uncle, at whose request he had been brought to camp, was a Sipahee of some standing in the corps I commanded; but notorious for using upon every occasion the grossest abuse: an insult offensive beyond any other, to all ranks of Hindoos. The boy had long submitted in silence to this, and other harsh treatment of his relation; till at length, upon the representation of a native officer, I directed that he should be removed to another company; and not allowed to associate with him upon any account: an arrangement at which the other affected to be exceedingly offended. Soon after, the uncle received a wound which incapacitated him for service; and he was transferred to the invalid establishment. Previous, however, to his quitting camp, the lad came to me and entreated me to use my influence to reconcile him to his uncle; and that they might not part in anger. I sent for him directly; and upon his entering the tent, Arjoon, the boy's name, fell at his feet. The uncle, however, remained for some moments sullen and unmoved; till at length, upon my upbraiding him for his harshness and insensibility, he put his hand gently upon the boy's head; who, when he felt this little act of kindness, sprang up, threw his arms around his neck, and gave vent to his feelings in sobs, that seemed to burst from his heart. This was too much even for the stoicism of the uncle, who then pressed him affectionately to his bosom; and exclaiming, "'Tis my brother's child," burst into tears himself. I do not remember that I was ever more sensibly affected.'

We shall now make some extracts from this selection; and the observations which Major B. has subjoined to each piece will render any explanation or connection unnecessary.

The Rusadik, or amatory class, comes first; the greater part of which are descriptive of the different amours of Krishna, either under his own name or under that of Kunya: but several of them have no mythological allusions. We take the following pieces nearly at random:

‘ ‘Tis Sawun; mark — the river flows
With rippling eddies to the sea;
The slender jasmine closer grows,
And clings about its wedded tree.

‘ The lightning wantons with the rain,
And brighter seems to gleam around;
The peacock woos in jocund strain,
While laughing earth returns the sound.

‘ 'Tis Sawun, love! — 'twixt man and wife
Let no sad parting moment be;
Who journies now? what gain or strife
In Sawun tears my love from me.

‘ A husband preparing to go a journey is dissuaded from it by his wife; who tells him that it is now the month of Sawun, when all the works of Nature rejoice, and indulge in connubial joys. The Hindoo poets not only feign the various and beautiful creepers that adorn their groves to be wedded to the more robust trees, but with the latitude of Orientalists assign the sea as a husband to the rivers; and the lightning, which in Sawun, when the rainy season has completely set in, is very frequent, as a consort to the rain. That month falls about the middle of July, and in the re-animation of vegetable life, almost suspended by the preceding heats, presents to the delighted senses all the natural phenomena of the spring of Europe.’ —

‘ Far from her playmates strayed,
A young and lovely maid
Came sporting o'er the glade,
Pure as the falling snow.

‘ With joy and fond surprise
Krishna towards her flies:
The maiden bends her eyes,
As all Love's children do,

‘ Her wreath she trembling *lays*
Upon some thorny sprays;
His aid then blushing prays,
Yet fears his well-known arts:

‘ Till soothed by gentlest cares,
To him her eye she rears;
One glance dissolves her fears; —
But points Love's keenest darts.’ —

‘ To view the waning moon at evening hour,
Fasting, a lovely maid ascends her bower;
Herself a full-orbed moon! — though brighter gleamed
The rays of beauty that around her beamed.

The women, wondering, from their Pooja ceased;
And thus with taunts addressed the wondering Priest:
" To you is heavenly science given! — then say,
Is't the full moon, or only *chout* to-day?"

'On the fourth of the month Katik, the Hindoo women fast till the moon rises; when they offer up *Pooja*, or sacrificial rites praying at the same time that their husbands may now grow prematurely old. The day is called " Kurwa-chout;" *chout* signifying fourth, and *kurwa* being the name of certain little earthen vessels, which the women stain with a mixture of rice and turmerick called *aipun*, and filling them with water and grass, place them before figures drawn upon the wall, called *Ahoi*; where they are left till the festival of the Diwalee, which occurs nine days afterwards. The Hindoo months commence on the day subsequent to the full moon (Poorun masee); and the foregoing lines describe a beautiful young woman ascending her balcony to await the rising of the planet on the evening of the Kurwa-chout.'

In illustration of this last specimen, our readers will recollect, " It is the *East*, and Juliet is the *Sun*."

Again,

' A merry group at evening hour
Kunya spied in shady bower,
Lovely as pearls on lady's breast;
And Rhada shone above the rest.
Sweetly to their chiming bells,
On the glad ear the chorus swells;
And, as so true they strike the ground,
Each heart grows lighter at the sound.
Th' enraptured youth no more concealed,
At once his radiant form revealed:
And how shall I by words convey
Their consternation and dismay!
Their cheeks, till then unknown to shame,
Now redden with the mantling flame;
And their sweet eyes, of lotus hue,
Bend just like lilies filled with dew.'

The following is of the class called Bishn-pud:

' O'er his pale face the hero bent,
And poured aloud his sad lament.
" Thy comely form mine eyes shall ne'er forego;
But keen remembrance bid my sorrows flow.
Speak then, nor more this dreadful silence wear:
Brother, — partaker of each toil and care!
Twelve weary years thine eyes ne'er closed in sleep;
And hence has pierced the fatal shaft more deep,
Seeta, the charmer, lost; — and Dusrut dead; —
A whelming host of foes around me spread;" —
He paused; — and on the pale face gazed again;
And who might whisper cheer, or bid him not complain.

'When Ramchundur, the fourth incarnation of Bishnoo, undertook his celebrated expedition for the rescue of his wife Seeta, who had been carried off by Rawun the Prince of Lunka, he was accompanied by his favourite brother Luchmun. This brother was mortally wounded by the first rocket fired from the besieged city: and in the above lines, Ramchundur is described as lamenting over the body of his dying and beloved relation.'

The rest of this class are tedious, and entirely mythological. — The ensuing are of the kind which is denominated Dohra:

'In vain I court the noon-tide rays,
In vain I wrap my cloak of baize; —
Fierce Winter reigns; nor will give place,
But to a warm and fond embrace.

'Yes, genial warmth has fled the earth,
And yields to chilling Winter's wrath:
But, banished, finds a place of rest,
Impregnable, — in Woman's breast.

'A lover, who had offended his mistress by unreasonable jealousy, entreats for pardon; and tells her that, what with her coldness, and that of the season, he is absolutely frozen. The indignant fair, who thinks that she has much juster cause of complaint, retaliates upon him in the second of these stanzas.' —

'Say, lovely moon, — say, deer-eyed maid,
Whose locks like lilies wave in air,
While this green Kewra scorns to fade,
Say, why neglect a form so fair?

'O, would the Kewra's leaves were sere!
In ashes would the village lay!
For he, whose false hands placed it here,
From love and me stays far away!

'And why should the Kewra's leaves be sere?
Or, tell me, why the village burned? —
For he, whose true hands placed it here,
Behold, in beggar's garb returned.

'Was paper then more dear than gold? —
Or ink more scarce than rubies bright?
Were slender reeds for thousands sold;
One line of love you could not write?

'I strove; — but only strove, to sigh; —
When memory placed thee in my sight,
My fingers failed, my heart beat high, —
I strove in vain; — I could not write.

'A man, soon after his marriage with a beautiful young girl, is obliged to travel into some distant country. Upon taking leave of his bride, he plants a Kewra (supposed to be the spikenard) in the garden, and bids her observe it well; for that, so long as it continued to flourish, all would be right with him; but should she on the contrary behold it wither and die away, she might be assured that some fatal accident had happened to himself. After several years absence, the man returns to his own country; and resolves to appear before his wife in the character of a Jogee, or Hindoo mendicant; and thus to ascertain how she had employed herself during his long absence. He finds her listless and sad; her person and dress neglected; and her sole employment, watching and weeping over the still flourishing Kewra plant. The above dialogue then takes place between them.'—

'Though blushes never tinge your cheek,
Still for themselves your actions speak;
The beads, imprinted on your breast,
Bid us with safety guess the rest.

'Not beads upon my bosom laid,
But Love himself these marks hath made,
And my firm flesh hath softened so,
With pellets from his fatal bow.

'A girl at an interview with her lover observes the fresh impression of beads upon his bosom. Her jealousy is excited, and she taxes him with infidelity, in the first of the foregoing stanzas; in the second he excuses himself to her.'

The last quotation is particularly playful. The next two are of the same sort, and exhibit the chastened style of feeling which is certainly a characteristic of these poems:

'Wear not rings and chains of gold,
And deem the words of friendship true;
Like rust upon a polished mould
Of steel they seem, when worn by you.

'These jewels on my neck are tied,
And crimson dyes my feet adorn,
Not to increase my beauty's pride,
But mark a matron's honoured form.

'A handsome woman, richly adorned with jewels and other ornaments, is addressed in the street by a man, who pays her the compliment contained in the first of the above stanzas: in the second she replies, and delicately reproves his presumption. It will be recollected that, among the Hindoos, married women only are permitted to wear such ornaments.'—

'Eager my lover tow'rds me ran;
His hand an army, and his plan,
The careless city to surprise:
But my eyes form a fortress good,
And eye-lashes a fencing wood,
Where modesty securely lies.

'In the foregoing figurative stanza, the power is described, which a modest woman always possesses, of abashing a presumptuous lover, only by a glance of her eye.'

In several of these compositions, our readers will perhaps have traced something of the style which belongs to the anthological poems of Greece and Italy. We shall present to them only two more examples, which remind us also of some of the lighter Grecian productions, by a species of humour devoid of farce and extravagance. The first may be termed "*On the Miseries of human Life.*"

'Your beast perverse; your man a rogue;
Your heart to amorous courses given;
Your friend a fool; your master mean;—
Can greater plagues be sent by Heaven?

'Dinner to seek abroad; a house
Built in some little dirty town;
Long journeys on cold rainy days;
Are miseries all mortals own.

'Yourself with wantons sporting oft,
While wife at home to love is given;
An itch to cheat, oppress, or rob;
A child, whom from your love you've driven;

'Folly, old age, a sickly frame,
A lack of means, a memory gone;—
These, these are hell, a present hell;
Talk not of others still to come.'

The second is more in the style of the Greek epigram:

'The frugal father's sage commands
Dealt, by his daughter's smaller hands,
His daily pittance to the poor.
Bad thrift;—her beauty to behold,
In beggar's guise both young and old,
Come thronging round the crowded door.

'It is usual for the Buniyas, or merchants, to distribute alms to beggars, by giving a handful of flour to each as he passes their door. A frugal Buniya, who had a beautiful young daughter-in-law, appointed her to deal out this daily pittance; pleasing himself with the idea that, as her hands were much smaller than his own, he should at once save his grain, and not lose his reputation for charity. The event is told in the above stanza: and it is common to this day, when a man gives charity with an ill grace, to say, "he gives it by his daughter-in-law."'

Viewing this selection as an introduction to the poetry from which it is taken, it cannot fail to be generally interesting to all classes of poetical readers, and particularly to those who are fond of oriental compositions. It certainly offers nothing great or sublime; nor any thing which has the affecting character of the tragedy of Europe: but it is, to use Major Broughton's own expression, 'a bouquet of simple buds,' attractive by its native simplicity alone. Of the fidelity of the translation, we do not pretend to judge: but, as the originals are printed on one side of the leaf, it will be in the power of those who are acquainted with the language to detect any instances in which the English may be wanting in fidelity. Considered as *poetical* versions, they do not call for either much praise or much blame: but the selection and the general manner are highly creditable to the taste of the author.

ART. X. *Fan-Hy-Cheu:* a Tale, in Chinese and English: with Notes, and a short Grammar of the Chinese Language. By Stephen Weston, B.D. F.R.S. S.A. 8vo. pp. 47. and 6 Plates. Baldwin.

ORAL Chinese is not a difficult language: its words are all monosyllabic, and mostly begin with a consonant and end with a vowel: its letters are not numerous: the consonants b, d, r, x, z, are not in use; and the inflections and the roots are few. Some of the inflections, however, consist in accents and vowels which are not expressed in writing; and hence it becomes of great importance to employ a master, until a learner is accustomed to supply by his ear the deficiences of the recorded language.

Written or painted Chinese (it is executed with a rabbit's-hair brush) is, on the contrary, a most difficult language. The letters, or elementary flourishes, called characters, are two hundred and fourteen in number; and these are compounded, in drawing them, so variously and whimsically, that the character which begins a word, or directs to it in the dictionary, is sometimes to be sought on the right and sometimes on the left, sometimes at the top and sometimes at the bottom, but occasionally at one corner of the complex flourish. These two hundred and fourteen elements, on which are rung the changes constituting the words of the Chinese language, are not letters or syllables, but grammatical roots. Thus, if the word *greatheartedness* were to be painted, it must be analyzed into its roots, *great* and *heart*, and the word *great-hearted-ness* be composed by the juxta position of the two characters; the formative syllables, or inflective terminations, being always understood.

Now these characters are legible in any other language, and suggest to the Japanese (we will suppose) the word *magnanimity*, or to the Mantchu the word *megalophrony:* but, when the Chinese word, instead of being formed naturally, is an arbitrary compound, such as *understanding*, then the written character, instead of suggesting the word *intellect*, may imply in another language the word *support*. Hence arise many ambiguities in the diffusion of public instruction.

In

In 1801, Dr. Hager published an explanation of the elementary characters of the Chinese, in a splendid volume; in which he recommends (p. lviii.) the adoption of them as an universal character. If any European language could be macerated into its radical fibres, and these be intelligibly labelled with Chinese flourishes, it must be the German; and we much wish that the learned professor of Pavia had made some experiments on a few sentences at least of his native tongue, to shew the practicability of so curious a version. The imperfections of European language would become in many instances apparent, by subjecting to this radical analysis the several compound terms employed.

In the use of the Chinese flourishes, however, a frequent departure occurs from all grammatical etymology. *Night* is signified by the word *Ye:* but the literal notation of night is compounded of the three characters *darkness*, — *covering*, — *man*. *Island* is signified by the word *tao:* but the literal notation of island is compounded of the two characters, *bird*, — *mountain;* as if an island were a floating, or flying, mountain. *Sea* is signified by the word *hai:* but the literal notation of sea is compounded of the two characters, or elements, *mother*, — *water*. Probably, the modern or extant Chinese is a language formed by the confluence of several distinct dialects; and, in the primæval tongue of the first inventors of their picture-writing, these roots really described a compound word which has since been superseded by a simple one. Many characters are at the same time etymological and picturesque; thus the elements *tao* and *cie*, signifying to cut or hack, exactly represent a hooked knife, or hatchet. The shield, the bow, the spear, the ship, and the chariot, also occur among the characters.

Being unable to sound the *r*, the Chinese substitute for it an *l;* for *b* and *d* they use the hard consonants *p* and *t;* for *x* and *z* they have only *s;* and they interpose a short vowel between any two successive consonants: so that, in their imitation of foreign words, the disguise is frequently ludicrous. Thus for *crux* they pronounce *cu-lu-su;* for *cardinalis*, they say *kia-ul-ti-na-li-su;* and for *Christus*, *ki-li-su-tu-su*.

The Chinese language deserves to be studied as belonging to a numerous population, and being the key to a national literature that is very antient and extensive. Although the antiquity of Chinese civilization has been greatly over-rated by the missionaries, we have considerable reason for supposing that the records of the country reach farther back than the Christian æra, and may include notices of the Parthian empire; whence emanated westward, and probably eastward, the first rays of religious and political legislation. The opinions of Confucius are nearly those of a Jewish Sadducee; and it is wonderful to observe the stability and political influence of a religious establishment, founded on a rejection by the magistrate of the doctrine of a future state.

Mr. Weston has here provided a welcome and compendious introduction to this curious language. The two hundred and fourteen elementary characters are neatly yet minutely engraved: but perhaps the huge wood-cuts of Dr. Hager are more efficaciously impressive on the memory; since we learn commonly to read and write with large letters, and afterward apply to smaller characters the contractile reminiscence. The grammatical rules follow; they are few in number, but extend from page 11. to p. 20. of this small volume: the greater part of which is occupied by the story of Fan-Hy-Cheu, of which we quote the English translation.

'During the reign of Kien-yen, and in the twenty-seventh year of the current cycle, Fan-juy raised the standard of rebellion at Kien-cheu; and in consequence of a dreadful famine which then afflicted the country, above an hundred thousand were persuaded to listen to his voice, and fight under his banner.

'In the course of the following spring it happened that the Mandarine Leu-chung-ye was appointed from Quan-see to the office of collector of the customs at Foo-cheu, and he was obliged to pass Kien-cheu in his road thither. A party of the rebels intercepted his retinue; and his daughter, a young lady about seventeen, who accompanied him on the journey, unhappily fell into their hands.

'At this time the leader, Fan-juy, had a son, named Fan-hy-cheu, a young man of good abilities, and about twenty-five years of age. He never had been married; but on seeing the fair captive, who was delicately beautiful, he was smitten with her charms; and learning that her family was noble, he chose a fortunate day, and having received the consent and approbation of his family, she soon became, by all the rites and ceremonies of espousal, his lawful wife.

'In the winter of the same year, the Emperor sent one of his own sons, the Prince Han-kuin-vany, with a great army, to put an end to the rebellion.

'On hearing this intelligence the daughter of the Mandarine Leu-chung-ye said to Fan-hy-cheu, I have been taught that no virtuous woman can serve two husbands: since we are united by lawful ceremonies, I shall ever owe to you the duties of conjugal obedience and affection. Your city is now almost defenceless, a victorious enemy will soon overcome all resistance; as you are the son of a distinguished leader in the rebellion, your fate seems inevitable: suffer me then now to end my life with this dagger, that I may not live to witness my husband's death.

' Fan-hy-cheu, interrupting her, said, It is not from inclination that I am now unhappily a rebel. Though you were unjustly forced away from your noble parents, do not now, by seeking to put an end to your existence, aggravate my crime and my misfortunes. The Imperial army now in the field against us is from the north; the soldiers are your countrymen; you will understand their language; you may perhaps even meet with your family and friends: live therefore for them, and be comforted.

' Be assured, she rejoined, that your wife will never submit during life to the embraces of another husband: I fear, however, the brutal violence of the soldiers, and have resolved to die rather than to be dishonoured.

' This proof, said Fan-hy-cheu, of your faithful attachment to me shall not prove unrequited, and I here solemnly promise you never to take another partner to my bed.

' It happened indeed that the Imperial General had long known the Mandarine Leu-chung-ye, and having halted with his army at Foo-cheu, he offered him a command near his own person; and soon after they proceeded together against the head-quarters of the rebels, at Kien-cheu. After a siege of ten days, the town was taken by assault: Fan-hy-cheu disappeared in the general confusion; but his wife, the daughter of Leu-chung-ye, terrified at the approach of the soldiers, attempted to destroy herself in an inner apartment. Among the foremost was her own father, and he fortunately arrived time enough to prevent the melancholy catastrophe. With care and attention, she was gradually restored to life; and the meeting of the father and daughter was alternately a scene of joy and grief.

' After the capture of Kien-cheu, the rebellion was easily extinguished, and tranquillity restored throughout the province.

' The Mandarine Leu-chung-ye thought it a good time to propose a second marriage to his daughter; but no entreaties could prevail on her to comply. What, said he angrily, do you still regret that rebel from whom we have delivered you? Alas! she answered, although you call him a rebel, he was nevertheless a man of integrity and virtue. After I had the misfortune of being separated from you, I fell into his hands: in the midst of rebels he was distinguished by actions of charity and benevolence. Under the protection of Heaven, he may possibly be still alive. Let me beseech you, my father, to excuse me from entering into a second marriage; and suffer me, as a dutiful daughter, to wait on my parents at home.

' Leu-shy continued with her parents in this manner several years.

' In the twenty-ninth of the cycle, Leu-chung-ye was promoted to the rank of commander-in-chief at Fong-cheu; and soon after an officer of rank, named Kiu, arrived from Quang-cheou, with dispatches from that government. Leu-chung-ye provided an handsome entertainment for his guest; and after his departure his daughter accosted him, to inquire who was the stranger that had lately arrived?

'It is an officer, said he, with dispatches from Quang-cheou. But his voice and footsteps, added she, remind me strongly of the son of Fan-juy, the rebel of Kien-cheu. Do not deceive yourself, said her father smiling; this officer's name is Kiu. What connection can there possibly exist between him and the rebel of Kien-cheu? Leu-shy had nothing to reply to this, and retired in silence.

'Half a year had elapsed when the officer Kiu again arrived at Fong-cheu upon public business. Leu-chung-ye entertained him in the same manner as before. Leu-shy hearing of his return, placed herself near a crevice, through which she had a view of what was passing in the outer apartments; and the moment she saw the stranger, was convinced that he could be no other than Fan-hy-cheu, her former husband. This she communicated to her father, who accordingly, after the stranger had dined and drank wine with him, entreated that he would confide to him his real history.

'The officer Kiu blushed, and said, I have to confess that my real name is Fan, and that my father, Fan-juy, was a noted leader of the revolters, and that I was one myself among them. The rebels were, however, completely defeated by the Imperial army; our city submitted to the yellow banner. I made my escape, and knowing that my life was forfeited on account of my revolted family, I changed my name to that of Kiu, in order to elude pursuit. Soon after I enlisted in the Imperial army at Yo-chung-heuin, and we were ordered to take the field against the rebels of the south. We had many engagements, and I fought in the foremost ranks, and endeavoured to distinguish myself against the enemy. My exertions attracted the attention of our General, and after the province was reduced to tranquillity, and the army disbanded, he determined to reward my services by nominating me second in command at Ho-cheu; from thence I rose to the first command, which I afterwards quitted for the situation I now hold under the governor of Quang-cheou.

'May I further ask, said the Mandarine Leu-chung-ye, the name of your lady, and whether you have not entered into a second marriage?

'Alas! answered he weeping, I once was married to a Mandarine's daughter, who fell into our hands when I lived in the rebel camp; but the same year that our forces were routed, and our city taken by assault, we were unhappily separated: but, in the hope of living to meet again, we mutually vowed to remain true and faithful to each other.

'I since accidentally found my aged mother at Sin-cheu, to the care of whom I have constantly devoted my attention, instead of turning my thoughts to marriage, and — here his words were interrupted by his tears.

'Leu-chung-ye shed tears of joy and gratitude at this providential discovery, and, hurrying to the inner apartment, he had the happiness of bringing together the husband and wife, who had been so long separated. After some days it was necessary that Fan-hy-cheu should return to his station at Quang-cheou: but he returned to his father-in-law as soon as the period of his appointment had expired; and the government of Leu-chung-ye terminating about the same time, they both fixed their residence at Sin-cheu, where Leu-chung-ye obtained the office of judge, and Fan-hy-cheu that of the collector of the customs.

' THE MORAL.

' Fan-hy-cheu was not justified in revolting, or Leu-shy for following him; but their offence was palliated by the natural love of life, and the almost inevitable necessity of the case. Viewing their mutual attachment and fidelity after separation, Heaven had compassion upon them, and brought them together again in the extraordinary manner which has been related.'

An engraved Chinese text of this story is also given; with a literal interpretation, in which the several characters are called by their verbal names: spelled according to a different system from that which was adopted by Dr. Hager.

We think that this publication is well adapted to invite the enterprizing young student to some familiarity with the Chinese language. The smoother beginnings of the way are strewn with flowers; and the rugged stones which oppose a farther progress are veiled or adorned with the wreaths of poetry and fiction.

ART. XI. *The Stock-Exchange laid open.* The Cause of the Rise and Fall of the Public Funds explained; with Observations on the mischievous Tendency of Time-Bargains, and the absolute Necessity of abolishing the present Stock-Exchange, and establishing an open Public Market: proving the Stock-Exchange, as a Body, to be a Deception on the Public, and the Stock-Jobbers, as Individuals, to be honest and harmless Men; with curious Annotations, and a Glossary. By a Gentleman of the Exchange. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Chapple.

WE do not know that we have ever called the attention of our readers, at any length, to a discussion connected with the occurrences of the Stock-Exchange; but that institution, in which indeed is heard "the busy hum of men," acquired considerable interest during the fluctuations of public credit which the late eventful war produced, and specifically in the individual case of the speculations of Lord Cochrane and his friends. Perhaps, then, it will not be unacceptable, particularly to residents in the country, if we take the opportunity of noticing the present tract to convey a few heads of information and explanation respecting transactions which are of a peculiar nature, confined within the walls of an exclusive company, and designated by a technical language which is not intelligible to the uninitiated.

The writer of this pamphlet discovers considerable familiarity with his subject, and any thing but familiarity with perspicuity of expression: but his object, as far as we can comprehend it, is to endeavour to account, by an explanation of the rules of the Stock-Exchange, for certain fluctuations which take place very unexpectedly in the price of our funds. It was a general opinion, when the Allies first succeeded in entering Paris and overthrowing Bonaparte, that a considerable rise in the stocks would ensue: but, to the surprize of almost every person, the effect was a progressive and eventually a considerable fall. Those who are not instructed in the mysteries of the Stock-Exchange were disposed to account for this anomaly by the magnitude of our unfunded debt, by the continuation of hostilities with America, and above all by the public, in the eagerness of its anticipation, having taken credit for all our successes in France, and carried the stocks beyond that point which even peace itself could justify. Of these reasons, the writer of the present tract lays stress only on the last; and he explains its operation in a manner that cannot be easily comprehended by persons who are unacquainted with the habits of stock-jobbers, and the rules of their mysterious operations.

He supposes a person unconnected with the Stock-Exchange to commission a broker to engage to deliver 5000l. Consols. for him on the next settling day. A settling day occurs once in a month; and the spirit of the bargain is that the party out of doors, who commissions the broker, expects stocks to fall, and imagines that he shall make a profit of the difference between the current price and the price at the time of settling. For instance, if the current price of Consols. be 68, the party, conceiving that they are likely to fall in the course of a fortnight or three weeks to 66, flatters himself with realizing a profit of two per cent. He accordingly instructs his broker to engage to deliver on his behalf 5000l. stock, in the expectation that he may purchase it, before the day arrives, at 66. The broker then goes into the Stock-Exchange, and soon finds a buyer in the person of a jobber at the market price of 68. Now let us suppose that, in a few days, a small rise takes place, instead of the expected fall, and that Consols. are at 68¼; then the out-door speculator, still clinging to the expectation of an eventual fall, directs his broker to contract for the delivery of another sum of 5000l. Consols. at 68¼: flattering himself that, in the event of a fall by the settling day to 66, he will be enabled to purchase stock to meet the delivery at a profit not only of 2 but 2¼ per cent. We presume the seller to act not on idle conjecture,

jecture, but on the probability of the occurrence of some public event, or the adoption of some public measure, calculated to lower the funds.

Let us next see the rule of conduct followed by the jobber. He looks not to any remote calculation, but to realizing a small profit on each specific bargain. He accordingly has no objection to give the enhanced price of 68½ on the second lot of 5000l. Consols., because the rise insures him a profit of ½ per cent. on his former transaction. He had in the first instance engaged to receive 5000l. Consols. at 68 on the next settling day; and he can wish for nothing better than a rise of price, inasmuch as it constitutes an enhancement of the commodity about to be put into his hands. The great difference between him and the out-door speculator is that, while the latter hopes for an eventual profit on the several transactions collectively, the jobber aims merely at protecting himself from loss, or realizing ⅛th per cent. on each particular contract; and, as the body of stock-jobbers at large act on this principle, a rise of stock frequently takes place, when from the complection of public affairs a fall was to be expected, and *vice versâ.*

Other circumstances conduce to this strange result. It is a rule on the Stock-Exchange that the transaction of three bargains at the same rate shall constitute an established price, and that there shall always be accounted a difference of ⅛th per cent. between buying and selling. Thus, suppose three or more sales of Consols. to take place at 68⅛, the inference and the rule are that there are buyers at 68; and if things *look upwards*, as it is said, in the course of the morning, the transaction of three sales at 68¼ establishes that price, and advances the buying price to 68⅛. The broker receives ⅛ per cent. commission, which may seem to be a large allowance on so plain a business, when transactions generally take place for 5000l. at a time: but he has to guarantee his principal to the jobber, and is sometimes exposed to loss by acting for a person who proves eventually unable to keep his engagements.

We are next to allude to a refinement in the mode of effecting business, which perplexes exceedingly those persons who are unacquainted with the customs of the Stock-Exchange. Notwithstanding a long list of contracts on the one hand to deliver and on the other to receive specific quantities of stock at the settling day, no such transfer is really made; the whole is a mere matter of account; a general price is fixed agreeably to the state of the market on the settling day; and the adjustment takes place by paying the difference between that price and the rate of the several previous contracts between the parties. In this involved transaction, the attention is somewhat amused by the oddity of the names adopted by the contractors. A person bound to receive a quantity of stock, for example 10,000l. Consols., at a given price, is called a *bull*, and the party pledged to the delivery is a *bear*, in the elegant phraseology of this department of the city. The former is evidently interested in raising and the latter in lowering the value of stock. To beat stocks down is called *banging* the market, and to fail in paying for differences is to *waddle*. Some jobbers are heard to say on the settling day, when the price has risen, "I am a bull all the way up," and *vice versâ*, "I am a bear all the way down."

The incessant fluctuation in the stocks arises from the interest which the jobbers have in covering each particular speculation, and from the established method of constituting a price by a limited number of sales; and the effects of these circumstances shew themselves in a variety of ways that would never be suspected by persons who are accustomed to *bonâ fide* transactions. We have in the present pamphlet (pp. 8, 9, 10.) an explanation of the manner in which they operated to bring down stocks in April 1814, after the overthrow of Bonaparte; the time at which, of all others, they were expected to rise. The public had bought stock very largely on that supposition, without considering that their eagerness had already raised the funds to the price to which the most favourable intelligence ought to carry them; and without being aware that jobbers, bargaining from day to day, or rather from hour to hour, find their interest in following rules materially different from those which influence any body who speculates for a period of some length. — It is of importance to observe, and to our country-readers the remark will be new, that mercantile men at large have in general as little to do with the Stock-Exchange, and possess as little knowlege of its manœuvres, as persons wholly unconnected with trade. In our vast metropolis, the departments of business are so subdivided, that many thousands pass daily near the precincts of this mysterious association, without ever giving a thought to the rules by which its members guide their proceedings.

It is needless to enlarge farther on a subject which it would require a long detail to render perspicuous to ordinary readers; and we can scarcely with propriety recommend the pamphlet before us as a source of instruction to those who may be desirous of farther information, its style and composition being so perplexed as to make it almost unintelligible to any person who is uninstructed in the practical part of the business. Occasionally, indeed, we find a good remark in clear language, such as (p. 27.) that 'notwithstanding the general disrepute of stock-brokers, there are a number of respectable characters among them;' and (p. 30.) that 'the 3 per cent. Consols. are six, eight, or ten per cent. higher than the proportional value of the 4 and 5 per cents., because the former are the stock for gambling transactions.' — The grand aim of the writer's arguments is to shew that the bye-laws of the Stock-Exchange-committee are frequently at variance with an equitable way of doing business; and that Government should not rest satisfied with pronouncing such bargains to be invalid in law, but ought to strike at once at the root of the regulations which give existence to the present system.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR JANUARY, 1816.

POETRY AND THE DRAMA.

Art. 12. *Where to find a Friend.* A Comedy, in Five Acts. By Richard Leigh, Esq. Now performing with unbounded Applause at the Theatre Royal, Drury-Lane. 8vo. 3s. Whittingham and Arliss. 1815.

Many persons would be glad to know 'Where to find a Friend,' and would thank Mr. Leigh to inform them. He is at least sure of the acknowlegements of the ladies for the solution of the difficulty which he has here given, since the kind, the amiable, the efficient friend whom he has provided is *a wife:* who bears with her husband's ill humours, corrects his objectionable habits, and renovates his dissipated fortune. On the other hand, the gentlemen have reason to complain, since the husband is drawn as a contemptible man of straw, set up only to be knocked down: but several of the characters are not unskilfully delineated; good sentiments are occasionally interspersed; and the moral of the whole is commendable.

Taking this subject, however, and the characters which form it, as the principal " aim and end" of the play, we must perhaps object that too much room is occupied, and too much interest excited, by the episode of Heartly and Maria, — the old story of an angry yet fond father, and an eloped daughter; the former brought back to comfort and to kindness by finding the fault of the latter to have been less than he supposed, and her punishment too severe. Heartly's *costume* is well kept up, and Maria will please as exhibiting the softness of the female character, combined with youth, beauty, and distress.

Art. 13. *What's a Man of Fashion?* a Farce, in Two Acts. By Frederick Reynolds, Esq. Now performing with unbounded Applause at the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden. 8vo. 2s. Whittingham and Arliss. 1815.

It is become almost unnecessary to characterize Mr. Reynolds's dramatic productions: the public knows them as well as the way into the theatre in which they are represented; and, we believe, it generally conceives them to be most justly named when, as in the present case, the word *farce* stands in the title-page. The subject of this drama, in truth, could no otherwise be appropriately treated, if the modern 'Man of Fashion' be correctly delineated by the writer. Mr. Reynolds, however, has surely "overshot his mark" in bringing a British Admiral on the stage as a sportsman: such a personage must appear very amphibious indeed, and can neither be pleasing in the representation nor to the feelings of our Sons of the Ocean: mixed, too, as it is here, with the *extravaganza* in other respects. Still, Mr. R. has contrived, as he always does, so to *prime and load* HIS *piece* with bustle, rattle, incident, and folly, that we can easily suppose it to *go off well*.

Art. 14. *Sonnets*, amatory, descriptive, and religious; Odes, Songs, and Ballads. By Thomas Rodd. Crown 8vo. pp. 193. Author, Great Newport Street.

We are sorry to say that we must not "spare the *Rod*," since these poems are of a very mediocre kind. Who can doubt the taste of an author who can wish to live like *a Snail*?

> 'Methinks 'twere pleasant like the Snail to dwell,
> And keep my home from idle guests secure,
> For then would I retire within my door,
> And live contented in my narrow cell.
> For much I hate unquiet broils, and fly
> The bustling tumult of the noisy crew,
> And pleasure far in other shape pursue
> Than where her charms allure the common eye.
> And could I like the Snail my house remove,
> I'd seek some happy spot beneath a hill,
> At whose fair foot should run a murmuring rill,
> And with me then should dwell the friend I love;
> And no ill neighbour near with hateful strife
> Should vex the tranquil hours of humble life.'

The last line but two is peculiarly unfortunate, and not a little unkind, since few animals could be named whose *domestic* situation is less adapted for making a friend comfortable than that of a Snail.

The volume comprizes 118 *Sonnets!* all printed on the lower half of the page, the upper part being left blank, that those readers, who are happily gifted with the limning art, may draw their own vignettes and save the expence of engravings. It will consequently be in their power to make the book as entertaining as they please: but, in its present shape, we are compelled to say that we have not met with one original idea among the whole, save that which we have already quoted.

In some of his miscellaneous poems, Mr. Rodd succeeds rather better: his song to 'The Oak' is spirited, and the notion of the Druid's prophecy in the first stanza is poetical and appropriate:

'I sing of the Oak, were I Lord of the world
A wreath should encircle my brow,
And proclaim where the fam'd British flag is unfurl'd
"My Oak the wide ocean shall plough."
Then hail lovely Oak, in the forest renown'd,
The first and the fairest of trees,
The Druid foresaw thou would'st give the world law,
The pride of the land and the seas.

'When he gaz'd on the tree with its wide spreading branch,
What visions transported his sight,
He saw the plank fashion'd, he saw the ship launch,
And saw her triumphant in fight.

'As he mus'd on the ship with her streamers so gay,
A long train of heroes arose;
Each destin'd his courage in turn to display,
And thunder revenge on our foes.

'He saw our third Edward himself lead the band,
To humble the lilies of France;
He saw Drake and Howard, protecting the land,
'Gainst the Spanish Armada advance.

'A Russel, a Hawke, and a thousand Chiefs more
In history's pages enroll'd,
A Nelson, whose loss Britain long shall deplore,
Of courage stupendously bold.

'Success to the Oak; may it flourish to keep
From hostile invasion our Coast,
Victoriously sail on the wide-spreading deep,
And still be the Englishman's boast!
Then hail, &c.'

In a former Number, (February 1813) we noticed with approbation some translations by the present author; and we regret that we are now obliged to give so unwelcome an account of his original productions.

Art. 15. *The Flower of Wye*, a Poem, in Six Cantos. By Henry Ingram. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

This is a fac-simile of the style and manner of Mr. Walter Scott; a remark which we seem obliged to repeat, in some shape, in almost every Number of our Review. That the present imitation is distinguished in no way whatever from a variety of its predecessors in the same beaten track, let our readers decide:

'The winter-whirlwind swept the *waste*,
As bent with years the Harper *pass'd*.
While round his shiv'ring glance he threw,
Remembrance trac'd in sad review,
The toils that mark'd his weary way,
Prolong'd thro' many a joyless day.

No voice of sympathy to cheer,
And soothe, with converse sweet, his ear:
Save when his harp's wild music flow'd,
The sole companion of his road.'

Several pretty passages, however, and such as manifest somewhat more of orignality, present themselves in the volume. The introductory addresses are pleasing enough; and we extract one of them, in proof of our assertion:

' TO RESIGNATION.

' Yes, Man has need of thee, thou child of Heav'n!
Few are the rays which gild life's fearful gloom;
When bleeds the heart, by hopeless sorrow riv'n,
Thou point'st to better scenes beyond the tomb!

' Yet there are woes, which e'en thy pow'r *defy!*
Which hurl affrighted Reason from her throne:
When the lost wretch for ever dead to *joy*,
Or wildly raves, or pours the ceaseless moan.

' Droop not, my heart! what tho' the horizon low'r,
All is not lost, since wedded love is thine:
Still wings Amanda's smile the lonely hour,
Still 'round my knees these prattling cherubs twine.

' Let us, Amanda, pour the grateful pray'r
To that blest Pow'r, by whom alone we live;
O! may his goodness guard our infant care,
And grant that peace the world can never give.'

This address, as a whole, deserves some commendation: but we neither approve the versification of a passage in the liturgy which concludes it, nor the sentiment which is contained in the last quatrain but one. For a man with a beloved wife and family of children to say '*All is not lost*' is as unnecessary, to speak in the gentlest terms of it, as for an Alderman at a city-feast gravely to acknowlege that "there *is* something to eat."

Art. 16. *Monthermer;* a Poem. By Edward Quillinan, Esq. of the Third Dragoon Guards. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

"*Vitem posce libello*" was the advice of Juvenal to the aspiring young soldier: but we presume that the poet meant to recommend the composition of a book on some military subject, and not a poem. We cannot, indeed, think that the martial author before us is likely to be raised many steps higher in his profession by this performance; nor do we conceive that it will be of more service to him in the fields of love (should he wish it so to be) than in the fields of war. Surely nothing above the fair milliners, who are candidates for the *marching* admiration of the regiment *now* quartered in their town, can be liable to the intended satire of the following passage:

———‘ In all his valour's glow
Forth to the ball-room flits the warrior-beau.
New rays of splendour at his entrance rise,
Shot from his zone, and belt, and arms, and eyes,
Charm'd with the various properties to please,
His lively looks of impudence and ease,
His drawled verbosity, his mincing pace,
His military — millinery grace,
The much enchanted, much resembling fair,
In various ways their joint approval bear,
Misses in teens peep timid o'er the fan,
And for the sword-knot's sake admire the man;
Brides of a se'nnight dart the glance oblique,
The figure pleases, but the trappings strike;
Widows in sables praise his tailor's wit,
That made the garments so precisely fit;
Virgins of sixty bless his tongue of truth,
That spite of wrinkles still asserts their youth.
In perfum'd mists of ogles, whispers, sighs,
The various incense round the hero flies,
Winds round the tassels, rolls along the sash,
Breathes on the sabre, or the sabre-tache,
O'er the mustache with trembling pleasure whirls
Floats on the whiskers, flutters in the curls.
Forsaken squires with hanging lip behold
The glittering thing of silver, silk, and gold;
Despairing doctors wail their piteous fate,
That not one lass will hear Galenic prate;
Astonish'd lawyers gaping stand aghast,
To find their blessed impudence surpast;
All, all, eclipsed lament their darker stars,
And struts triumphant the embroider'd Mars!’

Much more of this description of *persifflage* is to be found in the volume; and, as our readers perceive, it manifests also some command of language and versification, though not under the controul of the purest taste. A passage occurs at page 9. (and indeed others of a similar description are interspersed in the work,) which shews, in our apprehension, a better style of writing:

‘ Dear Mary, why, far flying o'er the sea,
In such an hour revert my thoughts to thee,
Alas 'twas here, thy conscious heart will tell,
Thy joy in pleasant days, thy soldier fell.
O'er mangled heaps of dying and of dead,
The thick balls whistling round his destined head,
With patient step and firm across that beach
He led, and died within that dreadful breach.
Perhaps he sleeps in ocean's sparry caves,
For ever lulled by yonder emerald waves;
Or rather, prest beneath yon sanded heap
He lies inglorious where the thousands sleep.’

Art. 17. *Marion of Drymnagh.* A Tale of Erin. In Two Cantos. By Matthew Weld Hartstonge, Esq. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

Some entertaining selections are made in the notes to this little volume, from Gibbon, and from less common writers on subjects connected with the Crusades: but, as to the text, we are sorry to be unable to bestow praise on any part of it. For example:

> 'How noble the banquet once spread in your tower!
> And how sweetly the charmer *she* sang in her bower!
> While murmuring gently the soft flowing rill
> Was heard in the distance of Drymnagh's lone hill:
> His proud banner De Bernval's battlements crown'd,
> And his turrets in sullen magnificence frown'd.
>
> 'Lord Reginald, a lofty Baron of France,
> As ever bore brand, or yet wielded a lance,
> Of illustrious line of ancestry vain,
> He trac'd his descent from the high Charlemaine,
> Untainted his blood, and distinguish'd his name
> The hero was first in the annals of fame.'

The following is of a still more whimsical description:

> 'L'Enfant was the maternal name,
> Which merg'd in proud De Bernval's fame:
> Of Drymnagh's fame old legends tell,
> But now the castle's called "Plus-Belle,"—
> "*Plus-Belle*," from her the lovely fair
> Marion De Bernval's honor'd heir.
>
> 'Oh! Plus-Belle is a pleasant place
> In July noon, or morn,
> From covert-lair the stag to chase
> When rings the hunter's horn.'

After all, this pretty name of Plus-Belle is not, it seems, the real name of the place; which bears, in fact, the appellation of *Blue Bell.*—Indeed!

Art. 18. *Hymns and Poems,* on Moral Subjects. Addressed to Youth. By Mrs. S. Sikes. 12mo. pp. 128. Bowdery and Kerby. 1815.

The poems in this book are less trite than the hymns: the subjects are certainly moral; and the volume may be safely placed in the hands of children, although we must confess that it offers but little attraction to their seniors.

NOVELS, &c.

Art. 19. *The Discontented Man;* or Love and Reason. By Anthony Frederick Holstein, Author of "Sir Owen Glendower," "Bouverie," &c. &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. 16s. 6d. boards. Newman and Co. 1815.

We are induced to excuse many obvious absurdities in the story of this novel, on account of the principal character here delineated;

neated; since 'The Discontented Man' affords an impressive warning against yielding to vague discontent and captious humours, which a French writer has termed "the wrinkles of the mind." The progress of this unhappy temper, with the selfishness and tyranny to which it leads, is ably drawn; and the subordinate personages are sufficiently interesting to give effect to the representation.

Art. 20. *Popular Models*, and Impressive Warnings for the Sons and Daughters of Industry. By Mrs. Grant, late of Duthil. 2 Vols. 12mo. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

Useful hints and examples to all classes of society may be obtained from these tales; and they are particularly well calculated for the instruction of servants: though, perhaps, the story of Donet and one or two others may present more dishonest contrivances than it is advisable to make known, even when guarded by an exhibition of their disgraceful consequences. We must also state our disapprobation of the fair author's expedient, in several instances, of placing parents and masters behind doors and folding screens, whence they listen to the conversation of their children and domestics; and, although we give her credit for the benevolence and good sense which have prompted this publication, we cannot consider it as the first or only attempt of the kind, when we recollect the delightful examples afforded to the labouring classes in Miss Edgeworth's "Popular Tales," and the excellent and interesting lessons conveyed to them by Mrs. H. More's Tracts for the Cheap Repository: such as "The Shepherd of Salisbury Plain," "The History of two wealthy Farmers," and several others, which are among the best and most original performances of the last named celebrated writer.

A few Scoticisms and inaccuracies of language occur in these 'Popular Models;' for instance: vol. i. page 40., 'cheap remnants, such as the ladies had *gifted* her to begin with.' — Vol. ii. p. 93., 'David was not so *gallantish* as Philip.' *Ib.* 'the baronet had *gifted* him a small library;' and page 146., 'to make up a little stock for him *whom* she had secretly resolved should *heir* all she might be able to accumulate,' &c. &c.

Art. 21. *Caroline Lismore*; or, The Errors of Fashion, a Tale, by Alicia Catherine Mant, Author of Ellen, or the Young Godmother. 12mo. 3s. 6d. bound. Law and Whittaker. 1815.

Though perhaps not forcibly written, this tale pleases by the moral sentiments which it displays; and, wherever it makes an impression, it must be favourable to the cause of religion and virtue. —We must, however, point out a few verbal inadvertencies to the notice of the fair writer; viz. page 7., 'no possible reason can be given *than* a fear of appearing,' &c.:—page 75., 'she joined the domestic circle in the *orations* to the throne of Grace;'—and page 105., 'the service of fashion requires so many monstrous sacrifices *to* good sense, *to* reason, and *to* religion.'

Art. 22. *Lady Jane's Pocket*, by the Author of "Silvanella, or the Gipsey," &c. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 2s. Boards. Newman and Co. 1815.

We cannot say that this tale affords much amusement; and, almost to the end of it, the hero lies under an imputation of vice, which is not, indeed, made out with sufficient ingenuity to alarm the reader respecting Mr. Flowerdale's morals, but which is implicitly credited by the fair Florence, and therefore serves only to lower her character, by exhibiting her as cherishing attachment for a person whom she believes to be hypocritical and unprincipled.

Art. 23. *A Tale, for Gentle and Simple.* 12mo. pp. 456. 7s. Boards. Hunter. 1815.

For a first production, this work possesses merit; and we think that 'the children will be deemed natural, the heroine interesting, and the moral instructive:' a sentence which the writer solicits as being the height of his or her ambition. If, however, the success of this tale should prove sufficient to elicit others from the same pen, we would offer a timely caution against introducing too many long speeches in bad English, proceeding from the subordinate characters; and against representing well educated children as speaking ungrammatically. We also advise the writer to beware of again "o'erstepping the modesty of nature," as palpably as it is here done in the delineation of Mrs. Dorothea Upland.

HISTORY.

Art. 24. *Considerations sur une Année*, &c. i. e. Considerations on a Year of the History of France. By M. de F. 8vo. pp. 168. Dulau and Co. London. 1815.

It is the object of this tract to communicate a series of observations on the events of the year 1814 in France, all of which the writer very modestly declares that he foresaw; though, like an obedient subject, he refrained from raising his voice against the arrangements made by his superiors. 'How,' he asks, 'could things fail to turn out as they did, Bonaparte being left within reach of France, and many departments of government in the hands of his adherents?' The Bourbons shewed, in his opinion, by far too much deference to the Revolutionists, and too little attention to the emigrants and the noblesse. The army, he says, (p. 83.) was kept on foot from a false calculation of its being necessary to enable France to hold her station among the other powers; which was a fatal error, since, had the troops been disbanded, Bonaparte would have fallen by the hands of the people.

The author proceeds, in the subsequent sections, to examine the course pursued by Bonaparte after his arrival at Paris; and he extends his speculations to the line of policy which Napoleon would have eventually held, had he not been precipitated from his throne. We are prepared to coincide with the writer in opinion that Bonaparte, notwithstanding all that he had suffered, would most probably, in the course of a few years, have resumed his restless projects: but we differ from M. de F. with regard to the severe course which he wishes to be adopted for the future by the Bourbons. Enough has been already done to shew to France, and to Europe, that Louis XVIII. is master of the country; and, this being established, a display of clemency will be the true policy of the Bourbon-government. Instead of holding this conciliatory tone, the author suggests (p. 146.) that the king should place his confidence in the royalists alone, and should endeavour to bring back France, as nearly as possible, to the state in which she stood before 1789; a sort of advice which is likely to find a number of well-wishers in this country, disposed as we are to attribute all the suffering of the present age to the French Revolution: but let us keep in mind that the noblesse, and others recommended in this pamphlet to the royal confidence, have at bottom as little friendly disposition to England as the opposite party. Were circumstances favourable, these men would be quite as likely as the Revolutionists to urge the executive power to a war, in the hope of re-conquering Flanders, that great object of French ambition. The King, moreover, is not justified in expecting many patriotic services from the privileged ranks; since, if we look back to the dissentions of the last century in France, we shall find them almost always excited by the refusal of the clergy and nobility to support their share of the public burdens. The true policy of the court, therefore, is to exclude the influence of party, to build its power on the broad foundation of the welfare of all classes, and to open, as in this country, the path of promotion to the untitled candidate. Were that done, we should soon see an end to the dissatisfaction, or rather the apprehension, still prevalent among a numerous portion of the French nation: which arises from no attachment to the doctrines of the Revolution, (since these in truth were never understood by them,) but from a dread that the court will take the first opportunity of removing from employment all who belong to the *Tiers Etat*, on the plan of replacing them by substitutes of antient families.

If we are disinclined to approve the reasoning of this pamphlet, we have additional cause for withholding a favourable testimony with regard to its style and execution. The reader has only to refer to any important passage, such as (p. 46.) the character of Bonaparte, or (p. 107.) a parallel between him and Lord Wellington, to be convinced that the diction is as vague and desultory as the arguments are narrow-minded and common-place. We can scarcely consider it as the production of a royalist of note, and should rather ascribe it to one of the industrious tribe of bookmakers, who fashion their performances with so much dexterity to the prevailing opinions of the day.

Art. 25. *History of the Secret Societies of the* (French) *Army*, and of the Military Conspiracies which had for their Object the Destruction of the Government of Bonaparte. Translated from the French. 8vo. pp. 250. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

A tissue of fictions, strung together in some garret by a Parisian book-maker, and wholly unworthy of attention from the public either in France or England. We discovered the character of the book some time ago from the original, and must confess ourselves rather mortified that any author or publisher should have supposed it to deserve an English dress.

Art. 26. *The Campaign of Paris in* 1814, to which is prefixed a Sketch of the Campaign of 1813, or a History of Events from the Invasion of France to the Capitulation of Paris, and the Abdication of Buonaparte; accompanied by a Delineation of the principal Traits of his Character, &c. &c. Translated from the French of P. F. F. J. Giraud. 8vo. pp. 148. 6s. Boards. Leigh. 1815.

When we reported the original work of which this is the translation, (Appendix, Vol. lxxiv. p. 512.) we entered rather fully into its merits; representing it as of a mixed character, and containing at one time *judicious* and at another *puerile* observations: but, on the whole, we found it less marked by partiality and exaggeration than the common run of French publications. The translation is made from an edition somewhat altered from that which was before us, and it is accompanied by a very good sketch of the neighbourhood of Paris, and a map of France.

Art. 27. *A concise History of the Jews*, from the Time of their Re-establishment by Ezra and Nehemiah, after the Babylonish Captivity, to the Destruction of Jerusalem by the Romans: forming a Connection between the History of the Old and New Testaments. With a Map of Palestine. For the Use of Schools. By the Rev. John Hewlett, B.D. &c. 12mo. pp. 365. Boards. Longman and Co.

The annals of no people present us with such peculiar and striking features as the history of the Jews. What other nation can boast of such antiquity and preservation? It long preceded the four great monarchies which are the subject of antient story, and it has survived their fall; fulfilling the words delivered by the prophet, "I will make a full end of all nations among whom I have sent thee; yet will I not make a full end of thee." Though it does not come within the province of Reviewers to speculate on the designs of Providence in this preservation, it *is* within their province to observe, since it is a fact of no little importance, that this singular people has been continued from age to age, notwithstanding a series of wars, persecutions, and massacres, which have often threatened their total extermination. The Babylonish captivity, from which the present history begins, was calculated to annihilate them, and some of the tribes did disappear in consequence of it: but it did not make *a full end* of this people. A few of them were restored to an establishment in Palestine: but they did not for any long period enjoy prosperity and repose: on the contrary, they were incessantly annoyed by their neighbours, and often treated with almost unprecedented cruelty. As that portion of their annals which this little volume embraces is the least known, the public are obliged to Mr. Hewlett for the details which he has here given, and which will be acceptable to readers in general; though he modestly offers the work only as a school-book.

The advertisement informs us that this Concise History makes a part of the supplementary matter that accompanies the writer's edition of the Bible:—an edition which has cost him much labour, is handsomely printed, and superbly embellished. Since the detail before us 'fills up the chasm between the History of the Old Testament and the Origin of Christianity,' it is of importance, and is here presented in a pleasing and instructive manner, though some inaccuracies will be found.

Mr. Hewlett is not disposed to admit without deliberation the apocryphal traditions of the Jews, but adverts like a true critic to the state of the Hebrew text. Having mentioned Simon the High Priest, he refers to him the completion of the Canon of the O. T., subjoining these pertinent strictures:

'It has been observed by commentators, that the books of Ezra, Nehemiah, and Chronicles, could not have been inserted by the inspired authors themselves, because there are some marginal corrections, which must have been made by their successors; and because some of the genealogies are brought down to periods many years subsequent to the time in which they lived. The book of Esther, also, appears to have been written after the time of Nehemiah: we may add, perhaps, the prophecies of Malachi. Since, therefore, this Simon the just is spoken of as the last of the great Synagogue, and was a man eminent for learning, patriotism, and piety, it may be reasonably supposed that he made the last addition to the sacred Canon, either by admitting these books into it for the first time, or, if they had been received before, by revising them, and giving them the sanction of the Great Synagogue over which he presided.'

The improbable story of the Jewish matron and her seven children, found in the Apocrypha, is noticed with commendable doubt:

'An account of the horrid tortures inflicted on a Jewish matron and her seven sons is given in the viith chapter of the 2d book of the Maccabees: but it is hoped, for the credit of human nature, that the narrative has been much exaggerated; and indeed the whole is very apocryphal: for though Josephus relates the circumstance, yet he differs much with respect to the tortures themselves, the manner in which they were inflicted, and the speeches which the sufferers are said to have made*. Besides, it is remarkable that neither Josephus, nor the author of the book of Maccabees, mentions the place where these horrible tortures were inflicted, the name of the Jewish matron herself, nor of any of her sons; which it is probable they would have done, according to their usual custom, if the story had come to them properly authenticated.'

'* *Vid. Lib. de Maccab. seu de Rationis Imperio,* p.1400—1409. *edit. Hudsoni.*'

At p. 324. the number of persons who perished in Jerusalem and the adjacent country, at the final destruction of this city by Titus, is calculated at 'one million, *thirteen* hundred and thirty-nine thousand, six hundred and ninety,' *i. e.* 2,339,690; if *thirteen* be a misprint for *three*, still the number is excessive. Josephus gives the number of those who perished during the siege at 1,100,000: but he is probably as much mistaken here as in his account of the size of the stones of which the temple was constructed.

An Appendix contains notices of the Septuagint version, of the Samaritans and Samaritan Pentateuch, and of the several Jewish sects, which make a suitable addendum to the history. Mr. H. sensibly rejects, as fabulous, the wonderful story respecting the manner in which the version of the Septuagint was executed.

EDUCATION.

Art. 28. *A Brief Historical Catechism of the Holy Scriptures,* designed for the Use of Children and young Persons. By William Alexander. 12mo. 8d. Darton and Co. 1815.

We have seen several books for children on a plan similar to that which is here adopted, but the present publication has the advantage of being one of the cheapest, and the questions and answers are generally clear. The name of *Chedorlaomer*, in page 18., is misprinted Chederlaomer.

Art. 29. *The History of Little Davy's new Hat.* With engravings. Small 12mo. 2s. Half-bound. Darton and Co. 1815.

This is rather an interesting little story: but the farmer's daughter, Miss Wideland, ought not to have been represented as evincing her charitable disposition by contriving to give or sell milk to the poor, when her father had ordered it to be saved for other purposes: this is "loving mercy," but not "doing justice;" and examples of clandestine benevolence, practised at the expence of filial obedience, should not be presented to children.

Art. 30. *The Ornaments discovered:* a Story, in two Parts. By the Author of "Aunt Mary's Tales." Small 12mo. 2s. 6d. Half-bound. Darton, Jun. 1815.

A pretty tale for children, somewhat romantic in the incidents, but tending to enforce the advice of St. Peter, that the adorning of young females should "not be the outward adorning of wearing of gold, or of putting on of apparel, but the *ornament* of a meek and quiet spirit."

Art. 31. *Infantine Stories,* composed progressively in Words of one, two, and three Syllables. By E. Fenwick. Small 12mo. 2s. 6d. Half-bound. Longman and Co. 1815.

We may recommend this small volume as a pleasing addition to the juvenile library, and as containing short and moral stories well suited to the comprehension of very young readers. It is rendered more inviting by some neat engravings.

Art. 32. *Private Education,* or a Practical Plan for the Studies of Young Ladies. By Eliz. Appleton. 12mo. pp. 326. Colburn. 1815.

Many practical directions are given in this volume which will be really useful to those who undertake the education of children: the list of daily studies for girls of different ages is judiciously drawn up; and several of the author's schemes for the improvement of her pupils do her great credit. Among these, we would notice particularly her geographical explanations; and her causing them to write abridgements of history and imaginary tours, and to transcribe French extracts from her dictation. We must, however, observe that this lady's style of writing is not eminently elegant; she says, at page 168., 'no writer upon geography has succeeded *equal* to M. Gaultier;' and at page 237., 'a book is not really instructive *without* every separate part be built upon principle,' &c. Though, also, we recommend her work to the perusal of private governesses, we would caution them against expecting to meet with many families who will be disposed, in compliance with the writer's exhortations, to allow them a salary of 200l., and an annuity of 300l. when they shall have completed their task.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 33. *L'Ogre de Corse,* &c. The Ogre of Corsica, or Buonaparte, a true and wonderful History. By C. J. R. (of D.) 12mo. pp. 180. Fifth Edition, corrected. Paris, printed;—London, re-printed, with a Translation. Deconchy. 1815.

As the title will probably suggest to our readers, this is a parody on the life of Bonaparte, composed in a style adapted to the humble capacities of nursery-maids and boys about the age of twelve. The original has passed, we are told, through four editions in France: but, if this be not saying too much for truth, it says too little for the judgment and taste of our neighbours.

Art. 34. *Love and Suicide:* or, Letters of Ortis to Lorenzo. Translated from the Italian. Second Edition, embellished with a Portrait of the Author. 12mo. pp. 233. Boards. Colburn.

Is it possible that such a wild, whining, pining, misanthropic, impious, and disgusting rhapsody could reach a *second* edition? If this be a fact, the age is gone mad, and Ortis is patronized by Bedlam at large! How ought a man, whether English or Italian, who 'without blushing declares himself to be eccentric and extravagant,' to be obtruded on us as a sort of instructor of mankind? We say *Englishman* or Italian, because, though these wild scraps are stated to be translated from the language of Italy, they betray an acquaintance with Sterne, and the story of Maria is imitated at p. 72, 73. This misanthrope not only preaches unhappiness, but asserts his belief that the Creator from all eternity designed *man to be unhappy.*—What amusement, what benefit, can result from printing and publishing such trash as this?

'I run about like a madman, without knowing whither, or wherefore: I notice nothing; and my feet drag me along amidst precipices, whence I command a view of the vallies, and the country beneath. Magnificent and inexhaustible Nature! My sight and thoughts are lost in the remote horizon:—I ascend continually, and . . . . just there . . . . standing upright, and panting for breath; I look downward; alas! an abyss presents itself! Horror-struck, I raise my eyes, and descend precipitately to the foot of the hill, where the valley is most imbrowned. A grove of sapling oaks shelters me from the winds and sun; two streams of water murmur softly on each side; the branches whisper; and a nightingale . . . . I have reproved a shepherd, who came to take away her young from the nest. The cries, the despair, the life of those feeble and innocent creatures, were to be sold, perhaps for a paltry coin: thus goes the world! but I gave him an equivalent for the profit which he hoped to draw from them; and he has promised me to disturb nightingales no more.—And there . . . . I take my rest. Where are ye, oh! happy early days! My reason is distempered, it seems to rely on itself only in heavy sleep.'

'Frequently, I figure to myself the universe laid waste; the sky, the sun, the ocean, and all the worlds, in flames, and void; but if, even in the midst of ruin so wide, I might once more clasp Teresa . . . . fold her, once more only, in these arms, I would invoke the destruction of the whole creation.'

Ought the subsequent impious address to the Deity to have been once, we will not say *twice* published?

'O God, execute on me the wrath, with which thou presidest in hell, blowing the flames which are to burn millions and millions of nations, to whom thou hast not made thyself known.'

Are excuses for and justifications of the crime of suicide to be sent forth into the world, guarded only by a short note of apology by the editor? For ourselves, we cannot tolerate the rant and impiety of the following passage;

'Thy marriage vow, oh Teresa! will, at once, pronounce my doom . . . but, so long as thou art free: and our love is in the power of circumstances . . . . of the uncertain future . . . and of death; thou wilt be always mine. I speak to thee, gaze on thee, and embrace thee . . . and I fancy that, thus, from a distance, thou canst feel the impression of my kisses, and my tears. But when thou shalt be offered, by thy father, as a holocaust of reconciliation on the altar of God . . . when thy tears shall have restored peace to thy family . . . then, shall I descend into non-existence. How can my love be extinguished while I live? And how shalt thou avoid being seduced, in thy heart, by the continual influence of its sweet allurements? But they will, then, no longer be hallowed and innocent. I shall not love, when she shall belong to another, the woman who was mine . . . . I love Teresa immeasurably; but not the wife of Odoardo . . . Alas! perhaps, while I write, thou art in his arms!—Lorenzo! . . . Ah Lorenzo! Behold my persecuting demon; he returns, continually chasing, inciting, possessing me; he bedims my intellects; arrests even the palpitations of my heart; makes my soul all fierceness, and would have the world end with me . . . . Weep all! . . .

Wherefore does he thrust a dagger into my hand, walk before me, turn back to see if I follow him, and point out to me, where I must strike? "Art thou sent by the most high vengeance of heaven?" — Thus, in my madness and superstition, am I prostrating myself in the dust, horribly abjuring a God whom I do not know; whom I have not offended; of whom I always doubt.'—

'He knows, that I can struggle no longer; he witnessed the conflicts which I endured before I came to the fatal resolution . . . and he has heard the prayers, with which I have so often besought him, that he would remove from me this bitter cup.'

These effusions, whether proceeding from a real or a fictitious Ortis, should have been consigned to oblivion.

Art. 35. *The Paris Spectator;* or, L'Hermite de la Chaussée-d'Antin. Containing Observations upon Parisian Manners and Customs at the Commencement of the Nineteenth Century, Translated from the French. By W. Jerdan. 3 Vols. 12mo, 18s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

The original French work of M. Jouy, whence these papers are derived, was reviewed by us at some length in Vol. lxxii. p. 465. Since that notice, some additional volumes have been supplied by the author, which preserve the like agreeable character, and abound with ethic delineations of French nature, deserving praise for their fidelity and urbanity still more than for their vivacity and elegance.

Mr. Jerdan, the translator, has selected those papers which are most adapted, in his opinion, for the amusement of the English public; and he has thus reduced five *tomes* to three thin volumes. Different persons would in such cases make a different choice: for instance, the account in No. VII. of a French lottery being very local in its details, and improbable in its assertions, we should have passed it by. — As the first and second volumes chiefly contain papers of which we have already stated the contents, we shall now copy a portion of the third volume, the materials of which are new. Let us take the portrait of an ecclesiastical poacher:

'Some of my readers may perhaps still remember the Abbé Vincent, with whom a taste for the chase had become a real madness. After having for a long period sought the means of associating the *decorum* of his profession with his ruling passion, he at length discovered them with the assistance of a skilful gun-smith in the *Rue de la Harpe.* This person invented expressly for the Abbé a gun, of which the breech took off, and could be put in the pocket. By means of an ivory knob, made to fit one end of the barrel, and a brass ferrule which went on the other end of it, the gun, covered with a fine japan varnish, was presently transformed into a cane. The Abbé with his cane in his hand, and a prayer book under his arm, a bob wig, and a violet coloured coat, used to leave Paris every morning in the sporting season, satisfied that in this costume he could only be supposed to be a curate of some neighbouring parish, returning on foot to his parsonage. No sooner did he approach a heath, a wood, or any other place stocked with game, than he put his gun in order; and drew from his pocket a small spaniel of an excellent breed, which instantly went in quest of prey. Ponto, with his nose to the ground, and wagging his tail, gave notice to his master that the game was at hand. The bird rose, a shot from the fowling piece brought it to the ground. The dog who carried it to the sportsman was immediately put with the prize in his pocket, and the game-keepers, who on hearing the report of the gun, were attracted to the spot, found only the Abbé walking with a cane in his hand, and reading his prayer book. The ecclesiastical poacher passed on to another estate, where he amused himself in the same way, and this he continued till he had filled his enormous pouch.

'The rigour of the ancient ordonnances restricted the rights of enjoying the sports of the chase, to the class of nobles and to the great land-owners. These laws the peasant and the citizen could not but at much risk and peril venture to infringe. More conformable to the general, as well as to individual interest, the existing code allows every one after the harvest to make war on the game on his own lands. From the beginning of the month of September, the castles and country houses are filled with sportsmen. They awake before day-break; — the guns, the game-bags, the ammunition-boxes are arranged at the door. They go from the village — their dogs open and disperse about the country, each seeking by sun-rise to discover the seats of the hares by the little vapour which rises from the place where they have passed the night. The alarm is given to the inhabitants of the woods — the dogs are in pursuit of them — the sound of fire-arms succeeds, and the game-bags are filled. The rendezvous has been agreed upon — the breakfast-hour arrives; all haste to share the bread, the dried tongue, and the veal pasty which the servants have been busied in providing. Each gives and receives his share of eulogium and criticism. "Such a prize has been missed by the fault of one person. One would give his best shot for that of his neighbour, whom he has seen bring down two partridges by a back-handed fire. — Another has made nothing but blunders: he is in ill-luck," (for sportsmen, like gamblers, have their prejudices and their superstitions). Breakfast being finished — the ozier bottle, which contains a little rum, passes from hand to hand, and is the signal for departure. They return to the field — the sun shines with all its force — the heat is insupportable, it is a punishment to course the plain. — No matter, they have agreed to *amuse* themselves till four o'clock. It is yet but noon. The game seeks cover in the thickest bushes. The sportsman exhausted with fatigue can find no more; and looks in his turn for a commodious sheltering place. His gun placed against a tree, on which he hangs his game-bag, his dog at his feet, he lays himself down for a nap, and sleeps; but the perpendicular rays of the sun, darting full on his nose, and the swarm of flies which walk over his face, soon awake him, and with eyes half open, he returns to the chase, and the carnage recommences among the rabbits and partridges. At length the village clock announces the hour of four, and the sportsmen assemble to make a triumphal entry on their return. The ladies, seated round a large table in the dining room, receive the hunters, who proudly display the trophies of the day — quails, partridges, rabbits, and hares, which they present to them. It is there that the game is shared, and made into different parcels by the huntsmen — the presents are forwarded to their destination, and the cook of the house takes possession of the choice pieces.'

This is a convenient parlour-window-book, and forms a natural sequel, or rather preface, to the *Paris Chit-Chat* of the same author, which was mentioned in our lxxviith Vol. p. 475. Less trifling, less genteel, and less moral than Addison, its author will scarcely obtain so popular a reputation: but, as a painter of living manners, sketched from reality and without caricature, he is intitled to eminent rank, and will preserve many individual traits that are instructive to the dramatist and the philosopher.

CORRESPONDENCE.

' To the MONTHLY REVIEWERS.

' Gentlemen,

' Two Correspondents have questioned the genuineness of the lines so often quoted as from Hudibras, "The man who fights and runs away," &c. I have known them denied to be in Hudibras at all, but I have found the *sense* completely *there*, and they were probably put in the above order from memory. In the original, they form lines 243–6. Part III. Canto iii.

" For those that fly may fight again,
Which he can never do that's slain.
Hence timely running's no mean part
Of conduct in the martial art."

At lines 291–2. are two other witty ones on the same subject, which might be very well appended to the former:

" And when the fight becomes a chace,
They *win* the *day* who *win* the *race*."

' A blundering school-boy, not well versed in punctuation, might easily make out the same sentiment in a line of Horace:

" *Virtus est vitium, fugere et sapientia prima.*"

' Your obedient Servant,
' AN OLD CUSTOMER.

The *Goat-herd of Mount Taurus* has not yet been introduced to us in his English dress: — perhaps his intended visit was prevented by *another* translation.

Mr. K.'s *Coup d'Essai* has not reached us.

P. O. E. T. I. C. U. S. is but just received.

*** The APPENDIX to Vol. lxxviii. of the MONTHLY REVIEW is published with this Number, and contains a variety of important FOREIGN ARTICLES, with the *General Title, Table of Contents, and Index for the* Volume.

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Art. I. *Harmonies de la Nature,* &c.; *i. e.* Harmonies of Nature, by Jacques-Bernardin-Henri de Saint-Pierre; embellished with a Head of the Author. Published by Louis Aimé-Martin; being a Sequel to the *Studies of Nature* *. 3 Vols. 8vo. About 500 Pages in each. Paris. 1815. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 16s. sewed.

Harmonies of Nature, by J.B.H. de Saint-Pierre; being a Sequel to his Studies of Nature. With a Portrait, and a Prefatory Account of the Author, and the Work. By Louis Aimé-Martin. Translated by W. Meeston, A.M. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 16s. Boards. Baldwin and Co.

Saint-Pierre is a favourite author, in this as well as in his own country; especially with the numerous class of sentimental readers. It will not be unacceptable to the public, therefore, to receive the volumes which we announce, as a not inconsiderable portion of a projected edition of this writer's works, under the care of his surviving friend, M. Aimé-Martin; who purposes to prefix to it a Life of Saint-Pierre, compiled from his own memoirs. In the mean time, his widow dedicates these lucubrations to the Duchess of Angoulême, in a singular strain of Gallic loyalty and piety; and next comes the editor with fifty pages of nicely trimmed periods, and refined sentimentality. *We* shall be satisfied, however, if we can sketch within moderate limits a summary of the plan and leading principles of the work itself.

In tracing a general view of what he terms *the Harmonies of Nature*, the author begins by stating and illustrating his primary position, that the Creator rendered at first all the elementary powers subordinate to that of the vegetable kingdom; and he endeavours to shew that herbs, flowers, and trees, in their primitive condition, were arranged and distributed according to the exigencies of their important destinies.

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* For an account of the original of these Studies, see M.R. Vol. lxxv. p. 522.; and for our report of Dr. Hunter's Translation, see Vol. xxi. of our N. S. p. 241.

While he laments our ignorance of the laws of the vegetable economy, he assigns, as the more immediate cause of vegetation, the influence of the solar rays; and, as its ultimate object, the supply of the wants of the human race: wants which are found to vary according to the latitude in which individuals are placed, and to which corresponding varieties exist in the productions of the soil. In conformity, too, with the character of different latitudes, is that of vegetable relations to the sun; and indeed M. de St. Pierre seems to believe that the qualities of plants are mere emanations from that luminary, and fleeting as the life which they owe to him. Again, the vegetable kingdom forms various combinations with the other kingdoms of nature, and, like them, presents what are here denominated thirteen harmonical relations; 'the first is celestial or soli-lunar; six are physical; and six moral. I use (says the author) the name of soli-lunar, because the moon here exercises an influence in conjunction with the sun. Of the six physical harmonies, three may be called elementary, viz. the aërial, the aquatic, and the terrestrial; while three may be called organized, namely, the vegetable, the animal, and the human. In the moral harmonies, we find likewise three that are elementary, the fraternal, the conjugal, and the maternal; while three are organized or social, viz. the specific, the generic, and the spheric.' — It is alleged that our botanical systems ought to be founded on the distinctions of these harmonies; an idea which is here attempted to be illustrated by the structure and history of the plant that produces corn, the plantain, the sugar-cane, the palm-tree, &c.

The *Vegetable Harmonies of the Sun and Moon* are said to be manifested in the reflection of the rays of these luminaries by the leaves of plants and trees, and by the petals of flowers: the pine-tribes of the north exhibiting pyramidal trunks, and varnished leaves, for the sake of augmenting this reflective power; while most trees with horizontal tops in the torrid zone have their leaves turned down, for the purpose of counteracting the intensity of the heat. It is to the sun that fruits are chiefly indebted for their colour and flavour; while the ligneous parts of trees imbibe the solar influence in summer, and return it to us in the form of fuel in winter. To the same powerful cause, we have to ascribe the formation of their annual rings, and that phosphoric light which vegetable products give out during decomposition. The concentric rings observable in certain roots, and the monthly increments of fibres which are traceable in some trees, may be quoted as indications of the lunar influence on the vegetable world; and the author entertains no doubt that the leaves and flowers of plants reflect the moon's rays in the same way as they reflect those of the sun.

Under the title of *Vegetable Harmonies of the Atmosphere*, we find the emerald-tint, which is sometimes observable in the firmament towards sun-set, attributed to the reflection of the earth's verdure: — while relations of a less questionable description are deduced from the protection which forests afford against winds, the conversion of noxious into pure air through the intervention of vegetables, the presence of *tracheæ* or air-vessels in plants, the levity of seeds destined to migrate on the breeze, and the quantity of food which vegetables extract from the atmosphere by means of their leaves.

To the *Vegetable Harmonies of Water* belongs the consideration of those functions of the leaves by which plants collect and respire moisture, of that mechanism of their roots by which they are enabled to procure nourishment by suction, of the structure of those seeds which are adapted to float along rapid streams, and of the conversion of the aqueous element into vegetable food. The vegetable kingdom, in its turn, extends its influence over the water by changing it into wood that decomposes into soil; thus occasioning a successive diminution of water throughout the globe, and a progressive increase of land at the expence of the ocean.

The *Vegetable Harmonies of the Earth* include the adaptation of the roots, seeds, and, in short, the entire constitution of plants, to peculiar qualities of soil, and varieties of exposition; the aggregation of vegetable layers that form peat-earth, or mould; and the singular fitness of the earth's surface for bearing vegetable productions.

The *Harmonies of Vegetables with one another* are supposed to be powerfully exemplified in their conjugal or reproductive union; which, variously modified, forms (as it were) an immense chain of net-work over the whole tribe, stretching along the surface of the globe, and extending from species to species and from genus to genus.

'Who has not felt, on contemplating a forest, or even a meadow, that other laws are active besides those of mere vegetation? On one side, the honeysuckle embraces with its garlands of flowers the round and rough trunk of the oak; while, on the other, a vine sends forth its arms to clasp the branchy elm. Even the grasses of the meadow afford examples of pleasant harmonies among each other; their flowers, so beautifully variegated, being so many conjugal couches. Their feathered seeds, flying along the air, result from what I have termed maternal harmony. The bleakest situations are occupied by what we may call families of grassy plants, which unite in tribes and legions for the purpose of supporting each other against the storm. The different species of vegetables are linked together by coincidences; while their genera are distinguished from each other by contrast. While botany shews us plants in humble pots, nature exhibits them in vast amphitheatres. It would be in vain, however, to look for the harmonies of a meadow in a few grasses, or for those of a forest in an insulated tree. It is in an assemblage of vegetables that we trace the sentiments of grace, majesty, and immensity, excited by a beautiful landscape. He who has studied plants, particle by particle, is as much a stranger to the extent of vegetable power, as he who should attempt to reason on the properties of tribes and nations from observing a few detached individuals.

'The harmonies of vegetables may be made to afford an ample range of gratifying contemplation to man, without reference to the supply of his wants. While the insect seeks with microscopic eye his food on a single leaf, which to him appears a meadow; while the ox enters with gladness a track (*tract*) of rich pasture; the pleasure of each is evidently confined to the mere gratification of appetite. To man alone it belongs to admire in plants those channels which convey nutritive moisture, and to derive from a train of similar observations a degree of pleasure calculated to encrease with the progress of his years. The sight of flowers is pleasant to us when children; and from the time that we can put a foot to the ground, we delight in running along the enamelled meadow. As we grow up, we take pleasure in assorting the jessamine and the rose for the fair object of our affections; or in grouping the ebony and the lilac together for her gratification. A man who happens to be in easy circumstances, and to join to the command of property the information acquired from a perusal of the works of Le Vaillant, Jussieu, and Linnæus, will require frequent supplies of new species and genera. He feels a wish to enrich his garden with the flowers of Asia, and his park with the specimens of the forests of America. Great, however, as these pleasures are, it is a gratifying truth, that the satisfaction thus afforded to a rich man is exceeded by the delight which a sympathetic cottager may extract from botanical observations. What can be more gratifying to the early pedestrian, than the landscape which the dawn lays open by degrees to his view? His eyes rest alternately on the meadow sparkling with dew-drops; on the forests shaken by the winds; on the moss-covered rocks; and even on the trees along the great roads, stripped of their branches, and looking at a distance like towers or gigantic forms. The beauty of the road often interests him more than the business on which he travels; and the landscape more than the inhabitants. It is impressions such as these that endear to us the days of our infancy, and the attractive spots which we traverse in our journeys. The image of them, and the recollection thus excited, are carried with us where-ever we go. The sight of the meadow, yellow with butter-cups, bordered with apple-trees, and covered with white flowers and roses, brings to my recollection the springs and the fields of Normandy; brown, purple, and green sea-weed, hanging from white rocks of marl, recall the cliffs of the district of Caux; aloes and carob-trees remind me of the white and barren eminences of Malta; birches with light foliage, mixed with solemn firs, bring to my recollection the tranquil forests of Finland; while palm-trees and rustling bamboos remind me of the Isle of France.

'The delight thus produced by vegetable harmony is felt at all times, in all places, and at every age. It gave additional ardour to those animating and consolatory lessons of philosophy, which were delivered in gardens by Pythagoras, Plato, and Epicurus. It may be said to accompany mankind even to the grave; for many persons, when hastening to their end, talk with delight of the excursions they intend making into the country. Even cruel hearts acknowledge its influence; for Danton, one of the accomplices in the massacres of September 1792, was heard, when sighing in his dungeon, and in hourly expectation of death, to call aloud, "Ah! could my eyes only behold a tree." Unhappy man! if this sentiment of nature still subsisted in your heart, you were not arrived at the last stage of depravity.'

It is reasonable to suppose that the vegetable products of other planets exhibit analogous harmonies.

The *Vegetable Harmonies of Animals* comprize those relations which subsist between the two kingdoms by means of the organs of sense and digestion. Supernumerary seeds and their pulpy coverings, the soft texture of the gramina, the humble stature of shrubs and bushes, and the thorns with which certain species are surrounded, sufficiently proclaim the beneficent intentions of nature, in affording food, repose, and protection to the animal tribes. The marked colours of fruits and flowers invite the animal creation to partake of their sweets: but the appropriate odours of fruits and vegetables constitute a still more powerful source of attraction: while the innumerable diversities of taste or relish are suited to the corresponding diversities of palate which prevail among those countless beings that are endowed with motion and life. Even the progressive motion of fishes has a reference to their manner of obtaining food from vegetable products, or from the solution of those products in water. Besides, each vegetable will be found to afford nourishment, in its several parts, to animals of different classes; and the smallest plant may be termed the centre of a living circle. It is also deserving of remark that no animal is destitute of those organs which are necessary to its particular mode of procuring food, and that none have more than they require. The excrementitious portions of their sustenance restore fertility to the plants which they consume; while grains and seeds which pass undigested through their bodies are re-sown in our fields, and even along our high-ways:—in short, the vegetable and animal kingdoms seem to maintain their equilibrium by a flux and reflux of wants and supplies.

The *Vegetable Harmonies of Man*, in combination with which the author considers the *Human Harmonies of Vegetables*, afford ample scope to his observation and his eloquence: but the topics of this part of his inquiry, which principally refer to the active and passive relations of vegetables with our senses, and with the nourishment of our species, are too obvious and familiar to detain us. This section of the work is followed by an episode, intitled *Vegetable Harmonies, or, a Botanical Lesson to Paul and Virginia*; to which are added various critical remarks on the Eclogues of Virgil, and hints relative to early education.

In his second book, M. de St. Pierre resumes his subject, and treats of the *Aërial Harmonies*, adverting first to those of the *Sun and the Moon.* The air which invests the globe is the medium of transmitting that heat which the sun imparts to various portions of the habitable world; and all the component parts of air communicate directly with one another, thus conveying to us an animating warmth from the seas of South America, when the sun is as yet little elevated at noon. Without air, the sun's rays would be destitute of heat, and the face of nature would be a scene of mourning and desolation. Though imperceptible to the sense of sight, the air not only exists, but collects and refracts the sun's rays on the surface of the earth; and, according to this author, the solar fire compresses air to such a degree, as to reduce it to a state of solidity in vegetable products. Currents of air, or *winds*, are produced by the rarefaction of tracts of the atmosphere, which thus lose their equilibrium with the circumambient air. As the winds issue from different quarters of the heavens, they are characterized, as we know and feel, by different properties; and from their conflicting energies, and from the varying temperature of the upper and lower regions of our atmosphere, 'it results that the harmonies of heat and cold, of dry and moist, exist in every part of the globe in different seasons, under an infinity of modifications.'

The *Aërial Harmonies of Water*, which are here noticed, are the property possessed by the atmosphere, when expanded by heat or condensed by cold, of absorbing or disengaging moisture; the counter-property of water, which aspires air by means of cold, and parts with it in consequence of heat; and the relation of air with water, depending on the earth's attraction, or, in other words, the pressure of the atmosphere on a column of water. Combining this last-mentioned property with the elasticity of the air, we may account for some of the phænomena of winds, for the form of the waves when the sea is agitated by a tempest, and for various other modifications of the aspect of the sea that are familiar to the mariner.

If we next attend to the *Aërial Harmonies of Earth*, we may be convinced that the winds, which convey to the mountain-tops those clouds that prove the source of rivers, also sweep to the same regions particles of sand, and the lighter kinds of earth; thus countervailing the unceasing drain of soil from the high grounds, occasioned by torrents and streams. The earth, on the other hand, re-acts on the air; the inequalities of its mountains affecting the state of the winds, and the vallies operating in many instances as funnels. Heated land, in like manner, on the sea-shore, produces those cooling breezes which are so grateful to the inhabitants of tropical climates. To these re-actions, which nature appoints to balance the effects of her general laws, belongs the theory of the trade-winds, of the land-breezes, and of the currents of air from Æolian hills. By means of the roots of vegetables, the operations of subterranean animals, &c., air is introduced beneath the surface of the ground, where it is also found deposited in sand, calcareous strata, &c.; and hence the inflammation of pyrites, which gives rise to volcanos and earthquakes, not to mention the temperature which is experienced at the bottom of mines. The hardest rocks, and the densest metals, contain invisible particles of air in their numerous pores; so that we cannot deny the existence of something like a subterranean atmosphere.

With regard to the *Aërial Harmonies of Vegetables*, it has been proved by Homberg, and others, that air becomes one of the solid materials in the composition of plants, from which it may be again expelled by means of heat. Vegetables also maintain harmonies with the air by means of their respiratory system, or apparatus of air-vessels; the fluid finding its way to and from the interior of the plant through a multitude of pores on the leaf, which are invisible to the naked eye, but of which not fewer than 162,000 may be discovered by the aid of the microscope, on one side of a leaf of box-wood. The etiolation of plants, their power of regenerating impure air, and the more considerable dilatation of the south than of the north side of vegetable stems, with various other circumstances which might be mentioned, all bespeak the affinities and relations that take place between the atmosphere and the growth of plants. Various, too, are the contrivances by which vegetables are protected against winds and hurricanes; and each tree or herb exhibits its peculiar motions in the breeze and in the gale.

'This rustling of the meadows,' says M. de St. Pierre, 'this warbling of the woods, have charms which to me are preferable to the most attractive music. My soul gives itself wholly up to the impressions which they are calculated to excite, sinking along with the waving foliage of the trees, and rising again with their summits towards heaven: it transports itself to the seasons which saw those plants take root, and to those in which they are destined to perish. These trees extend my fugitive existence into an infinite space, and seem to speak to me, like the oaks of Dodona, in a mysterious language. Majestic forests, peaceful solitudes which have often calmed the passions which agitated my breast, may the cry of war never disturb your murmuring glades! May your sacred rustling be accompanied only by the sounds of the feathered tribes, or by the gentle language of friends and lovers, who come to seek repose under your shade!'

The *Aërial Harmonies of Animals* are not less apparent or less interesting than those of vegetables. In consequence of the air contained within the animal system, the body is not oppressed with the weight of the external atmosphere; and animals likewise support their existence by the process of inspiring and expiring this important fluid, although their breathing organs are constructed on different models. Volumes might be written on the varied mechanism by which birds and insects sustain their flight in a medium so attenuated as air.

We pass, however, to the *Aërial Harmonies of Man and of Children.* Man, in his mature state, and aided by his social harmonies, exercises on air a power that is found adequate to his wants: but the same being, when viewed as a helpless infant, proclaims the weakness of his condition by affecting the ears of his parents or nurse with the most touching sounds; and he receives his nourishment by means of an hydraulic process which cannot be performed without the pressure of the external atmosphere. Next to warmth, air is the most essential element of his existence; and to its salutary influence he ought to be very freely exposed.

Book iii. relates to the *Aquatic Harmonies*, and commences with those of *Air.* To the presence of aqueous vapour in the air, we are indebted for the varied aspect of the clouds, the magnificence of the morning dawn, the affecting tints of the setting sun, the phænomena of the rain-bow, mock-suns, &c. and, perhaps, the reflection of terrestrial objects in the sky. Aquatic vapour, moreover, absorbs a portion of solar heat, and imparts it to the earth in fertilizing showers.

The *Aquatic Harmonies of Water*, — i. e. we presume, the harmonies of water with water, — arise from the incompressibility of that element, and from the singular property by which, like a mirror, it admits light within it, while it does not reflect on the outside the figures of coloured and luminous bodies. The reason or final cause of such an optical law is more obvious than the explanation of the principle on which it depends; since, had the waters of the earth, whether in a frozen or a liquid state, reflected the images of bodies from without themselves, 'a thousand deceitful forms would have been mixed with the real ones, and the expanse of the ocean would have reflected a new world, and another sun.' M. de St. Pierre presumes that even the deepest chambers of the ocean are, in some measure, heated and illuminated by the sun.— The level and the circulation of water are necessary results of the earth's attraction; and, to this principle, combined with the alleged elongation of the poles, he ascribes the phænomena of the great currents, and of the tides.

Under the *Aquatic Harmonies of the Earth,* the author descants on the flow of rivulets, the formation of mineral masses in the bosom of the deep, and the relics of tropical products in the fossils of the north. From the various facts which he was enabled to observe, he is inclined to believe that the greatest part of our globe owes its origin to the agency of water, above the level of which it has progressively risen. Even the subterranean waters, notwithstanding their apparent tranquillity, are supposed to participate in the great agitations of nature, and to contribute to the production of volcanos, earthquakes, and tornados, which are incessantly instrumental in renovating the globe.

'God is not only infinite in duration, in power, in extent, in goodness, but he is infinite in intelligence. His works advance from perfection to perfection. The spring rising out of a rock is preferable to the vapour attracted by the rock; the rivulet running from the hill is superior to its spring. The streams which traverse vallies and plains surpass the rivulet; the majestic river, descending from lofty mountains and rolling into the sea, is more beautiful than the stream; the sea, which bathes islands and extensive countries, is far grander than any river; and finally, that ocean which surrounds the world is infinitely more magnificent than a sea. Vegetable products, for which in a great measure these harmonies were appointed, are more perfect than the winds which blow on them, than the water which bedews them, or the soil which bears them. The animal kingdom is, in like manner, superior to the vegetable, and man to animals. Moreover, all these divisions of the kingdom of Nature are in a progressive state of amelioration. Air and water are changed into earth, as well as into vegetable and animal substances; new continents arise out of the bosom of the sea. The orchards of Asia crown the marine fossils of Europe, and extend to the shores of America, while the flocks of the ancient world are multiplied in the Savannahs of the new. But this amelioration is particularly apparent in the situation of man. There was, I believe, a time when of Europe little else was visible than the Riphæan mountains, the volcanos of Hecla, Auvergne, Ætna, the Alps, the Pyrenees, the Appenines; a time when the fisherman cast the anchor of his bark on the glaciers of Switzerland. In progress of time the water flowed off, and Europe saw magnificent cities arise out of the bosom of obscure quarries, while stately vessels were constructed from the oaks of her forests. Her children, numerous and industrious, spread over the world, and collected an ample portion of its riches. Trees imported from the forests of the new world were made to shadow their parks, and their tables were supplied with the fruits of Asia. It may enter into the arrangements of Providence to cause at a future period the waters of the southern ocean to withdraw, so as to leave behind a new continent, in which the hamlets of the poor islanders of the present day will be changed into magnificent capitals, and whence there may proceed fleets of merchantmen to trade with the old world, and anchor, to the sound of music, on our shores. The commerce of the world would then be carried on across an ocean of less extent, interspersed with fertile islands; men would share the gifts of Nature with gladness, and would put forth in concert their adorations to their common Father. A day will come, and the present generation may flatter itself with beholding its dawn, when Europeans will teach their children to substitute a disposition to mutual assistance for the fatal ambition of taking a lead among their equals; and to consider that the interest of each is identified with the interest of all.'

The title of *Aquatic Harmonies of Vegetables* has a pointed reference to that portion of water which is circulated and modified in vegetable productions; and of which the functions and uses are here aptly illustrated by the history of the germination, growth, and maturation of the almond, by statements of various physiological facts relative to the vegetation of trees, mosses, &c.: particularly by a review of some of those plants which affect the borders of streams, or which even come forth in the bosom of the water itself.

The *Aquatic Harmonies of Animals*, again, relate to that division of water which is absorbed by animals for the purpose of renovating their blood and humours, and which is received into their system by mouths, trunks, pores, &c. of diversified structure: species of different constitutions and climates being accommodated with portions of organization adapted to their aquatic exigencies. In this section, our attention is likewise drawn to the instinct and to the means by which animals are enabled to traverse water, and the capacities exhibited by some species of living either in water or on land.

In considering the *Aquatic Harmonies of Man*, or his internal and external relations with water, it will be found that all the laws of hydraulics have conspired to their production. By various means, Nature has contrived to raise him above the water, when swimming; and some of the most important sources of his industry seem to have had their origin in situations adjacent to water.—This theme is farther prosecuted in a section intitled, *Aquatic Harmonies of Children, or the History of a Rivulet.*

Terrestrial Harmonies compose the subject of the fourth book. Their import will be better apprehended, if we previously endeavour to form distinct notions of the external figure of the earth, particularly of its mountains and vallies; rejecting, on the one hand, the water-courses of Buffon, and on the other the subterranean fires of the Plutonists, and 'referring mountains, as well as their fossils, to the different powers of nature, and to their physical and social harmonies.'

To the *Terrestrial Harmonies of the Sun and Moon* belong the positive and negative, the active or the passive, operations of mountains and vallies, when viewed in relation to these luminaries. Thus, *parasol* mountains, by their great extent of shade, protect the vegetables of the contiguous vallies from the excess of summer-heat, while plants raised on their summits enjoy the coolness of an elevated atmosphere; and it is worthy of remark that these protecting mountains increase in frequency as we approach the hotter climates. In general, they abound in metals and mineral crystals, as if these products were generated and matured by the solar influence. The *reverberating* mountains of the north, owing to their shape, and their white or sparkling aspect, are more calculated for reflecting the sun-beams, and promoting the rapid vegetation of the short hyperborean summer; — and with these we may contrast the snow-clad mountainous ranges which traverse the torrid zone, and moderate the ardour of a vertical sun. The rocky and icy mountains of Spitzbergen present still different features, and are constituted in accordance with the physical condition of the interjacent vallies. Mountains may likewise be said to belong to the other powers of nature, in consequence of the variety of their products, especially in the torrid zone. 'If the hyemal or frozen mountains are relative more particularly to the negative harmonies of the sun, volcanic or fiery mountains bear similar relations to his positive harmony, because all fire proceeds originally from him. Yet both are in relation with water, the former by attracting it to their summits, the latter by purifying it in their craters. We thus find every power in the domain of Nature operating as a wheel within a wheel; and all the parts of her mechanism in correspondence with each other.' — These views are followed by analogous observations on the influences of the lunar rays on the mountains and vallies of the earth.

In treating of the *Terrestrial Harmonies of Air*, M. de St. P. considers mountains in a twofold point of view; viz. as protecting the vegetable world from wind, or as contributing to produce that phænomenon,—or, to use his own phraseology, as *Anti-æolian*, or *Æolian*. On reviewing some of the leading circumstances connected with the principal elevations in different latitudes, he endeavours to explain their agency in the production of the land and sea-breeze, and in modifying the strength and direction of currents of air. A few paragraphs are also allotted to the appropriate characteristics of vegetables and animals that seem to affect the Æolian hills.

When examined with reference to the *Terrestrial Harmonies of Water*, mountains may be divided into *hydraulic* and *littoral*; the former attracting the waters, and the latter serving as barriers against them. Of the hydraulic, we may distinguish two principal varieties; one exhibiting a gentle acclivity, and the other an amphitheatrical form. Both attract the vapours of the atmosphere by their summits, and pour them in streams along their sides. In the system of nature, they are immediately connected with springs, rivulets, rivers, cataracts, lakes, and seas; and they often contain external or internal reservoirs of water for feeding the streams that issue from them. These mountains and their reservoirs, moreover, present to our observation vegetable and animal products peculiar to themselves. Of the littoral description are sand-hills on the sea-shore, coral and other submarine rocks, of a concave form, which often rise from a very considerable depth, and convex hills, composed of stone, on the dry land. The concave littoral mountains, which rise above the surface of the water along the coast, are denominated *cliffs*, and are merely steep banks, of a greater or less degree of elevation, but generally on a level with the adjacent ground. Rock-plants and fuci, sea-fowl, testacea, &c. inhabit them, in great profusion and variety.

Under the *Terrestrial Harmonies of the Earth*, our attention is directed to the consideration of those mountains which are reckoned peculiar to the earth itself; as the great granitic chains, which combine the harmonies of all the others, and may be regarded as forming their common centre, or nucleus. Like mountains of other descriptions, they are greatly varied in their forms; and they not only contribute to adorn the landscape, but are essentially instrumental in maintaining the harmonies of nature: since, without them, winds, waters, plants, and animals, would be arrested in their courses and movements.

The *Terrestrial Harmonies of Vegetables* naturally impel our thoughts to that *humus*, or vegetable mould, which acts such an important part on the surface of the globe. This stratum, which in our latitudes scarcely exceeds a foot in depth, is made up of the remains of fossil and particularly of vegetable bodies, of which it is at once the cradle and the grave; Nature ever extracting life from the spoils of death. Here the author rapidly glances at the process of vegetation, as it is affected or modified by the different kinds of mountains and vallies.

The *Terrestrial Harmonies of Animals* are still more numerous and interesting; because animals, besides being subject to the laws of gravitation, are endued with an intrinsic power of progressive motion; and the disposition and distribution of this power are nicely varied and adjusted to the operation of the more general law of attraction, which may be exemplified in the movements of individuals of the different classes, genera, and species. Other adaptations of their economy may be referred to the categories of repose, temperature, habits, and various other circumstances, incident to the condition of sentient beings.

Among the chief of *the Terrestrial Harmonies of Man*, may be reckoned that of rest and motion; which manifest such a direct influence on all his proceedings, and to the enjoyment of which his curious frame is so admirably suited. A sort of analogy may be traced between the structure of the earth's surface and that of the human body. In the soft grasses of the meadow, Nature has spread for man the couch of repose; and to the bosom of the earth she bids him resign those elements which he borrowed from it.

A section is devoted to the *Terrestrial Harmonies of Children*, or rather to some important points in conducting early education, to the truth of which the majority of discerning and feeling parents will readily yield assent.

[*To be continued.*]

Art. II. *The Life and Campaigns of Field-Marshal Prince Blücher of Wahlstatt*, from the Period of his Birth, down to his Second Entry into Paris, in 1815; comprehending not only authentic Biographical Incidents of the leading Military Characters of both the French and Confederate Armies, but much novel and interesting Matter. Translated, in part, from the German of General Count Gneisenau, Quarter-Master General to Prince Blücher's Army; with considerable Additions by J. E. Marston, Esq. of the Hamburgh-Bürger-Guard. 8vo, pp. 430. 18s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1815.

The interest inspired by the name of the hardy veteran of Prussia, and by an examination of the circumstances accompanying some of the battles in the campaign of 1813, will induce us to extend the present article to some length, although the publication before us has not so much claim to notice as its title might seem to prefer. Indeed, we feel it incumbent on us to warn our readers, in the outset, that an improper liberty is taken in that title-page with the name of General Gneisenau; (to whom, as is often the case with regard to the Quarter-Master General of an army, much more merit is due than the public suppose;) since the volume contains nothing from the pen of that distinguished officer except copies of a few of his official reports, taken from the news-papers.

Marshal Blücher was born at Rostock in the dutchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, in 1742, of a family of considerable antiquity. Being placed, during the war of 1756, for the purpose of safety in the island of Rügen, his attention was caught by the appearance of the Swedish Hussars stationed in that quarter; and his mind was so strongly excited towards a military life, that he insisted on embracing it as a profession, notwithstanding the dissuasion of his relations. He entered the army accordingly: but, during his second campaign, as a cadet in a regiment of Swedish Hussars, he was made prisoner by a division of Prussian cavalry, and was carried, with other captives, before the commanding officer. The youth and open features of young Blücher gained him the esteem of the Prussian Colonel, and led to his removal into that service, after proper means had been taken to procure his discharge from the Swedish: a measure which was accomplished by the Colonel of the Prussian regiment, whose name was Von Belling, consenting to send back a Swedish officer who had been made prisoner under circumstances that exposed him to the hazard of punishment at the hands of the Prussians. Blücher was now made a Lieutenant, and had the benefit of much instruction from his Colonel; who was in the habit of saying, " My young adjutant will one day become an ornament to the service, if his natural parts are improved by a knowlege of tactics."

In this regiment, Blücher continued for a number of years, until his Colonel happened to fall under the displeasure of his peremptory master, Frederick II., and was displaced. Being by this time senior captain of the regiment, Blücher expected to succeed to the vacancy which soon afterward occurred on the death of the Major, but the interference of the new Colonel procured that rank for an officer of higher birth; when, finding his remonstrances disregarded, he asked leave to resign, and received from the king in a couple of lines that bluntly expressed assent which found its way almost generally during the last year into our news-papers. He now married, and lived quietly in the country during the remainder of the reign of Frederick; a period of not less than fifteen years: but he re-entered the army in 1786, with the rank of Major, and soon afterward received the commissions of Lieutenant-Colonel and Colonel. His talents were first called into action in the campaign against the French in 1793: when, at the head of his regiment, and frequently on detached service, he had opportunities of displaying his intrepid and enterprizing character; gaining also the hearts of his officers and soldiers by the open condescension of his manners, and by partaking all their hardships. In 1794, he was promoted to the rank of Major-General: but, a peace ensuing, seven years elapsed before he acquired the next step in rank. He had no opportunity of active service until the disastrous campaign of 1806; when the resistance made by him at the head of a small body of troops, pursued and insulated, formed a gratifying contrast to the general flight of the Prussian army. It will be in the recollection of many of our readers, that Blücher, when cut off from the means of retreating to the eastward after the battle of Jena, was so far from thinking of capitulating, that he continued to harass the French with as much activity and intrepidity as if he had been at the head of an imposing force; and he did not surrender until, driven from province to province, he had reached at Lubeck the utmost verge of the German territory, and occupied a French force of four times his own numbers. His perseverance was dictated not by a delusive hope of eventual success, but by a wish to lessen, as much as it was in his power, the pressure on the heart of the kingdom, by drawing a proportion of the French to its western extremity.

The battle of Eylau took place during Blücher's captivity, but he was soon afterward exchanged for Marshal Victor, and treated by Bonaparte with much affectation of politeness. He was not, however, to be thus duped; and his name will be sought in vain among those Prussian officers who consented to serve in furtherance of Bonaparte's projects on Russia. When his country had at last a prospect of avenging her wrongs, he was called forth, and placed at the head of her army; where his appearance increased surprizingly the ardour of the troops.

'His character is marked by a combination of rare qualities, great frankness of manner, and a popular freedom of speech, which have gained him the unbounded confidence and love of his soldiers, whom, on all occasions, he calls his children, and who never speak of him but by the appellation of father. A firmness and decision in the hour of danger rank him with the first commanders in the world. In the heat of battle, in the tumult of an important onset, when leading his troops to an attack, his courage, intrepidity, and presence of mind, are most conspicuous. His voice always cheers the resolute, and his example animates the wavering and tardy.'—'When galloping down the front of his lines, either on parade or before the enemy, his heroic figure, his eye full of fire and energy, an inspiring voice, and a gallant chivalrous management of his horse, attract the notice of the files, fix their attention, make an indelible impression on the spectators, and seem to pledge success to the heart of every soldier, if led on by such a commander.'

Although the operations of May and June 1813 were not favourable in the result to the allies, yet Bonaparte's successes were obtained by immense sacrifices. At this time, Blücher acted in co-operation with, and indeed under the orders of the Russian General; so that, strictly speaking, he was not answerable for the determination to fight the enemy either at Lutzen or Bautzen. It is not to be doubted, however, that on both occasions his vote was cordially given in favour of decisive measures. At Lutzen, Bonaparte, though greatly superior in numbers, had not completed his dispositions; and at Bautzen the allied force had the advantage of a strong though too much extended position. In both battles, the relative numbers are said to have been about 70,000 to 100,000; but the allies were sure, at all events, of covering their retreat by their great superiority in cavalry. Their loss in the former of these battles was computed at 10,000 men, killed and wounded; in the latter at nearly 15,000: but, great as was this slaughter, it formed perhaps not much more than half of the French loss. In the retreat which followed the battle of Bautzen, Blücher found an opportunity of displaying his talents against the French van-guard, whom he drew into an ambuscade near Haynau on the 26th of May (1813), and would have completely captured, had it not been for the too great eagerness of his troops: — but he took several hundreds of prisoners, with eighteen pieces of cannon, and a quantity of stores.

The armistice concluded after this affair was not dictated on either side by a disposition to peace; Bonaparte being confident of success if he were allowed time to bring up his new levies, while the allies cherished similar hopes (and happily with a better foundation) from the exertions making throughout Prussia, Russia, and Austria. While operations were thus at a stand in Germany, the attention of England and the Continent was pointed towards Spain, and gratified most opportunely by the battle of Vittoria. This signal conquest had, no doubt, considerable influence with the cabinet of Vienna, by adding weight to the propositions of the allies, and encouraging that decisive scheme of operations which pointed to the expulsion of the French from Germany. Austria consequently now took a decided part, and, on the rupture of the armistice in August, received a large body of Russian troops into her Bohemian territory. It is from this period that we are to contemplate Blücher in his separate command.

Bonaparte having made Dresden his grand central point, the mass of the allied force operated against him from the south; while Blücher, at the head of nearly 60,000 men, was opposed to the French army stationed to the east of the Saxon capital. Though the French Emperor was now overmatched in numbers, he hoped, by making a fortified city the pivot of his operations, and by rapid marching backwards and forwards, to be able to oppose a superior body at any point which might be attacked. During his absence at Dresden, on the 26th of August, the battle of the Katzbach was fought between Blücher and Macdonald; — a battle deserving of notice as being the first in which the Prussian General had an undivided command. He had made his arrangements for attacking the French, when he learned that they also were proceeding on the offensive plan, and were actually on their march towards him. He then halted his columns, and made them conceal as much as they could their numbers and their cannon. The ground had been drenched for several days by rain, and the air being much obscured made reconnoitring very difficult: so that, though the movement of such large bodies could not escape the observation of the French, the onset of the Prussians was in a great measure unexpected. The rain having rendered their fire-arms almost useless, recourse was had to the bayonet, and dreadful scenes of slaughter took place:

'It was the second battalion of the Brandenburg regiment of infantry that formed the head of the column which made the first onset. Cool, steady, and compact, the battalion advanced to storm three batteries, protected by two squares of infantry of the enemy's centre. The cannon-balls plunged into the ranks, mowing down whole files. The Prussian column, silent as death, moved on unshaken. A galling fire of grape-shot now thinned their ranks. No one looked either to the right or left, and shouts of "Forwards! forwards!" stifled the cries of the wounded and the dying. Whole sections fell, and the dauntless survivors did but press on the more vehemently to use the bayonet. Closing with the enemy, a dreadful pause of irresolute suspense seemed to intervene, when, as the officers shouted, "Down upon them!

down upon them!" a furious murderous charge with the bayonet ensued. In the heat of the attack no quarter was given, and scarcely ten minutes elapsed before the enemy's phalanx was transformed into a pyramid of ghastly corpses. The other square, shuddering at the fate of their advance, broke, and took to their heels. The tumult and confusion in the French centre were so great, that two regiments of French horse, which advanced at full gallop to cover the fugitives, passed the Prussian column at this moment, mistaking them for their comrades.'

In vain the French attempted to redeem the day by a furious attack on the Prussian left, and subsequently by a collective charge of their cavalry; neither the Prussians nor a Russian corps acting with them were to be overthrown; and the enemy had no alternative, but to make their way across the rivers Katzbach and Neisse, both greatly swollen by the rain. The battle lasted from 3 o'clock in the afternoon till night, and was followed in a few days by the capture of a division of French troops exceeding 8000 men; who in the anticipation of success had been ordered to manœuvre on the rear of the allied army. The aggregate loss of the French in prisoners thus amounted to 18,000 men, with 100 pieces of cannon. This reverse and the capture of Vandamme's corps by Schwartzenberg were the first serious blows struck in the autumn-campaign of 1813; and they were followed by the repulse of the French army under Oudinot, in its attempt to advance against Berlin. The success of these operations, and the approach of an additional corps of Russians under Benigsen, encouraged the Prince of Schwartzenberg to adopt a more daring course; and to exchange the plan of alternate advance and retreat for the decisive manœuvre of making the allied troops advance from all points against Leipsic, in order to throw themselves on the flanks and rear of Bonaparte. To this determination he was farther stimulated by the secret treaty just concluded with Bavaria; in consequence of which, General Wrede was enabled to march to Hanau for the purpose of attacking the French in their retreat.

This operation was by much the most complicated and hazardous that the Allies had yet attempted. Their troops were superior to the French in numbers and discipline: but the latter were more collected, and might, by a rapid concentration, strike a sudden blow on one of the advancing armies. Hence the importance of secrecy and celerity, particularly in the case of Blücher, whose movements across the Elbe could hardly be made without bringing him within the reach of the French. His method of managing the passage of that river has always appeared to us the most distinguished of his operations. While he occupied the opposing force of the French by an appearance of hostility, he prepared in secret two bridges of pontoons; and, breaking up his camp near Dresden on the morning of October 1., he marched with great rapidity in a north-west direction. In two days he reached the Elbe at Elster, the spot of his intended passage. Here, *on the night of his arrival*, he threw over the two bridges of pontoons in the face of the enemy's fire, and the first part of his army crossed early in the morning of the 3d. A body of 20,000 French, under Bertrand, now attempted to oppose him in a strong position near Wartenburg: but their resistance was ineffectual, and Blücher soon brought his force into communication with that of Bernadotte; making on the left side of the Elbe a body of 120,000 men.

The events that followed were decisive of the fate of Germany and of the Continent at large. In the battles near Leipsic, Blücher took that active part which was to be expected from his personal ardour, and the impatience of his countrymen to avenge their wrongs. The work before us gives a long, but by no means a clear, account of the fighting on the eventful days of the 16th and 18th of October. On the former, the Prussians had an obstinate action with the French posted at Mockern, and carried that position by dint of the most persevering efforts. The main body of the French were at this time fighting at a distance to the south-west against Schwartzenberg; the heat of the action was near the village of Lindenau; and at a moment when things looked favourable, Bonaparte sent off a messenger to the King of Saxony in Leipsic, with a laconic note in these words: "*Nous avons du succès ; on m'attaque du côté de Lindenau, mais on se cassera le nez* *." The result of these different actions was an approximation of the allied troops for a more combined and decisive conflict. The 17th passed without fighting, but in the evening the allies determined to make a general attack on the French in the morning. Bernadotte, being at some distance from Schwartzenberg's quarters, was not present at the conference, but was soon understood to consider that plan as premature. He was probably disposed to confine the operations on so formidable a host to rear-guard attacks, to be commenced after circumstances should compel them to retreat: but Blücher, viewing matters in a very different light, hastened, very early in the morning of the 18th, to Bernadotte's head-quarters, with Prince William of Prussia, who attended for the purpose of supplying Blücher's deficient knowlege of the French language:

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* "We go on prosperously: the enemy is attacking me on the side of Lindenau, but will get his knuckles rapped."

'Upon Prince William's opening the object of their visit, mentioning that the attack must at all events take place, and General Blücher's wish for his powerful and decisive co-operation; the Crown Prince, in a hurried and hasty tone, exclaimed:

'"Do but consider that you have to act against the ferocious untameable spirit of a tiger! Reflect, that it is with Napoleon you enter the lists, who has never as yet lost a battle!"

'Our veteran eagerly inquired what the Prince said, and, on being informed, replied in his usual firm manner: — "Tell his Highness I shall attack the enemy wherever I find him, this morning, and shall beat him too; let who will support me. Delay is all we have to fear. Indecision can alone undo us."

'The Crown Prince, however, still continued to state and repeat his difficulties and doubts: upon which Prince William of Prussia declared, in the name of the Allies, "That although they could not prevent his Highness from adopting those measures which he might judge most favourable to the issue of the campaign; yet as the general attack was determined upon, they should, on his refusal to co-operate in this momentous hour, be obliged to leave his Highness no other troops to command than his own Swedes."

'Hereupon the Crown Prince, with much warmth, replied: — "What is it you mean? How am I to construe this language? Napoleon himself never dared to utter such abrupt remarks towards me, as Marshal of France, which your Highness now thinks proper to make to me, as Crown Prince of Sweden."

'Blücher, on these observations being explained to him, rejoined, with evident irritation and impatience: — "If his Highness is afraid — if he does not think himself strong enough, I'll let him have Langeron's corps (which he actually did); but by G— I shall make a greater impression on the foe, with my handful of men, than the Prince, as I see, will with his tens of thousands. Procrastination will play the devil with us. Here, I observe, we may lose time. Let us be gone." As Blücher spoke these last words, the cannonade of the Bohemian army was distinctly heard.'

Though he was thus backward to engage, Bernadotte performed his part extremely well in the action, the result of which was much accelerated in his quarter by the coming over of the Saxon troops.

'The 7th corps was drawn up in two lines near Paunsdorf. The brigade of cavalry belonging to this corps, the light artillery, and a battalion of light infantry (all Saxons), as likewise a brigade of Würtemberg cavalry, under General Normann, were posted between Paunsdorf and Taucha. These troops were upon the point of being charged by the Russian cavalry, when they marched hastily forwards, the infantry shouldering their firelocks, and the cavalry sheathing their swords, and came over to the Allies. The Saxon corps * posted in Paunsdorf, no sooner heard of this event, than they took the same resolution; and although the Saxon General, Von Zeschau, endeavoured to prevent them, yet the whole of the 1st brigade, consisting of eleven battalions of infantry, three squadrons of cavalry, and three complete batteries of heavy artillery, followed the noble example of their brethren in arms, and made the cause of the confederates their own. General Platow received them with every mark of joy and enthusiasm, and detached some regiments of Cossacks to keep the French horse in check that endeavoured to impede the march of the Saxons and faithful Germans on the road of honour.'

The great slaughter on this day took place in the village of Probstheide, where Bonaparte made the most obstinate resistance to the efforts of the Austrians and the Russians: but, though he was not absolutely worsted in this point, the abandonment of the whole of his positions became unavoidable after the defection of the Saxons, and the progress made on the east side of Leipsic by Blücher and Bernadotte. The loss of the allies was great, but far inferior to that of the French; who are said to have suffered on the 16th, 18th, and 19th, a diminution of nearly 60,000 men, including the wounded left behind in Leipsic: two hundred and fifty pieces of cannon also fell into the hands of the allies. The forces brought on this occasion into contact exceed any numbers recorded in authentic history: Bonaparte having under him, in a concentrated position, above 170,000 effective men; while the allies had, in a wider circle, above 250,000.

In the campaign of 1814, the first operations of Blücher consisted of the passage of the Rhine on the 1st of January; of a march through Alsace and Lorraine until he formed a junction with the grand army under Schwartzenberg; and of the battle of La Rothiere on the 1st of February, in which, after some loss in the outset, the Allies succeeded in defeating Bonaparte. This advantage had, however, the effect of prompt-

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'* On the 18th, at Paunsdorf, one of Congreve's rockets fell before the front of a battalion of Saxons; but the fusee burning out by accident, before it burst, it produced no effect. Some of the men, on examining it, and discovering it to be one of the English rockets, of which they had heard such a terrible description, began to crack their jokes on this new-created harmless messenger; but in the midst of their merriment, a second happening to fall in the ranks, spreading destruction and dismay all around, the whole battalion, as if seized with a sudden panic, broke and dispersed itself instantaneously, nor could the officers, with all their authority and threats, collect and rally the men again, to bring them into the line.'

prompting Blücher to advance too rapidly, and produced those partial checks towards the middle of February, which created so much unfounded alarm in England; connected as they were with an imaginary backwardness on the part of Austria, and with apprehensions of the result of what may, in our opinion, be styled the equally imaginary negociation at Chatillon. Certain it is that any imprudence on the part of the Field-Marshal was amply compensated by his subsequent caution, and by his judicious dispositions near Laon; where, on the 9th or rather on the 10th of March, he effectually foiled all the efforts of the French. Napoleon now marched against Schwartzenberg, and took the extraordinary resolution of throwing himself in the rear of the Austrians, the result of which was the almost unopposed march of the Allies to Paris.

We come now to the last scene in this military drama. The short campaign of the summer of 1815 discovered on the part of Blücher the same activity and intrepidity which he had before displayed; though mixed, it must be confessed, with a portion of the same over-confidence. By making a stand so near the frontier as Ligny, he brought on himself the main body of the French before he could be fully supported by our troops, and in fact before the arrival of one of his own corps. On the memorable day of Waterloo, also, he certainly under-rated the difficulties of the march from his position at Wavre to the field of battle, and calculated on taking part in the action long before five in the afternoon. Nothing, however, could surpass his exertions after he had come up, or the judgment discovered in directing the strength of his army against the main body of the French, without disquieting himself about the temporary success of Grouchy at Wavre.

The portrait prefixed to this volume is a striking likeness of the Field-Marshal. His features, and indeed many of his actions, suggest rather the idea of an intrepid warrior than of a reflecting leader; so that we are inclined to ascribe much truth to the saying current among the Prussian officers, that "it is Gneisenau who combines and Blücher who executes."

We are sorry, in summing up, to be under the necessity of repeating a negative opinion of this work. It is, on the whole, an odd mixture; exhibiting in some passages remarks not undeserving of attention, and in others a strange confusion of different accounts. The battle of Waterloo, for instance, is described in one way at p. 412. and in another at p. 414.; and, in the battle of Leipsic, the occurrences of the 18th are related before those of the 16th. In one part the compiler deals in sudden apostrophes, in another in extravagant exaggerations. Unluckily, the defects of the original are not mended in the translation, which is hasty and erroneous. The reader of the book, therefore, must be contented to seek his gratification in the events, for he will be disappointed and mortified at the manner of relating them. The best executed part of it consists of the plans of the battles, which are well engraved, with clear and circumstantial explanations; and, occasionally, an amusing passage is to be found in the notes.

ART. III. *Cona; or the Vale of Clwyd;* and other Poems. 12mo. pp. 215. 7s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

IT is not often that we see the stanza of Spenser better managed than in this anonymous tale of Cona. The basis of the poem is a love-story, coincident with the invasion of Mona by the Romans; and, if it be not abounding in probabilities, it is yet sufficiently productive of poetical situations and descriptions, while the language throughout is elegant and appropriate, with but few exceptions. The modest shape and announcement of this meritorious composition form a pleasing contrast to the pompous nothings which the muse of the day so incessantly brings forth; and we certainly have no more welcome employment in the discharge of our critical functions, than that of contributing to call into notice such productions as the unassuming manner of their publication would otherwise too often doom to comparative obscurity. As to the tale itself, it has no complicated contrivance that can demand analysis; and, where all is smooth and easily developed, a full account of the incidents and characters is neither requisite nor desirable: indeed, the reader's pleasure would be diminished by such a plan, and nothing would be added to the reputation of the writer. We shall, therefore, pursue our more usual course with the minor efforts of poetry, and quote some detached specimens of the work, interspersing them with our own remarks.

We cannot refuse to sympathize with the melancholy of an author who so naturally expresses his feelings of despondence as in the following stanza:

> "Oh! while I trace the Clwyd's haunted stream,
> To gaze *on monument of elder fame*, *
> May fair-winged Fancy light a wizard beam,
> To lead me to the fount of holy flame!

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* '*To gaze on monument of elder fame.*' We are sometimes annoyed with this *Walter Scottish* violation of grammar, and similar faults, in the Vale of Clwyd, but not frequently.

Not that I dare to ask a poet's name;
No, all I crave is Nature's kindly glow,
(A prayer that merits nor reproof nor blame)
To chase my bosom's deeply rooted woe,
And sooth my sorrowing soul, while untaught numbers flow.

'For I have closed the eye of many a friend,
With chilling care have struggled long in vain,
Have seen the hopes that rose so fair, descend
In disappointment, misery, and pain.
By treachery my heart is rent in twain,
Love's early blossoms wither in the grave,
My bark is wrecked on life's tempestuous main;
Yet heaven has pleased my lyre alone to save,
Of all the joys my youth in bright profusion gave.'

This strain of depression pervades many parts of the volume, and rather adds to the pleasure of perusing it:

"*Non quia vexari quenquam est jucunda voluptas,*
Sed quibus ipse malis careas quia cernere suave est."

Female instruction, given to an ingenuous and beloved youth, is well described in the subjoined lines; and at the concluding portion of them a subject ever new and inexhaustible, although constantly repeated, is happily introduced:

'With curious eye the matron loved to trace
The earliest dawnings of immortal mind,
The intellectual glance, the blushing grace,
That leaves the painter's baffled art behind,
Around the soul by Nature's hand entwined
The wondrous links of Memory's golden chain,
That holds the bright ideas well combined,
Obedient to the will a brilliant train,
The rudiments of thought and embryo Fancy's reign.

'Full well she knew to scatter Virtue's seed,
In fair profusion o'er the fruitful heart,
To pluck betimes rank Vice's poisoned weed,
That soon with deepening root would mock her art;
To act the Mentor and companion's part,
To lure to knowledge, while she seemed to play,
And, grave Instruction's formal looks apart,
To teach the youth to walk in wisdom's way,
Which she would fondly paint in hues of opening day.

'O lovely woman! man's unvarying friend,
Thy soothing accents hush his infant wail,
Thy ever-wakeful eyes on age attend,
When the warm pulse of life begins to fail;
To chase the cloud of care thy smiles avail,
In danger faithful as the turtle dove,
The star that gilds the gloom when woes assail;
Thy gentle bosom is the home of love,
The heaven of bliss below, the paradise above.'

The reader is to imagine that the hero and the heroine of the tale have been separated; that a battle disastrous to the Britons has taken place; and that the youthful Meredyth and the aged Mervyn, the lover and the father of Cona, have escaped to the Irish coast: where long

'They wandered on their weary pilgrimage,
Seeking a place of rest they no where found,
With fortune doomed a cruel war to wage;
Exiled from all they loved, they roamed around
The hills of Erin to her farthest bound,
When, at the close of a long summer day,
Through shades of eve they heard so sweet a sound,
That it might seem the song of mountain fay,
Or spirit of the wood that sung no earthly lay.

'When bounding from the forest like a fawn,
A wreath of thyme and roses round her head,
A female fair as genius of the dawn,
With easy grace adown the mountain sped.
Eve's slanting ray a light on features shed,
In which appeared an air of settled sadness,
Yet with the thoughts by veering fancy bred,
It brightened in a gleam of wildered gladness,
Or sunk again in gloom of melancholy madness.

'Again a strain was dying on the ear,
Sweet as the angelic harp that sounds on high,
When sinless childhood dries the suffering tear,
Shining in robes of immortality,
A pure and stainless spirit in the sky.
It was an air of Wales, and Cona's song
That oft delighted her in infancy:
"She comes," they cry, "she quits the heavenly throng,
To light the gloom of woe these dreary wilds among."

'The lovely minstrel lightly trod the wild,
Regardless of the strangers, gliding by,
With features so celestial and so mild,
That she might seem a tenant of the sky:
Breathless they traced her with an eager eye,
For Cona's every lineament was there;
Awed by the sight they watched when she should fly
On pinions of an angel through the air,
To join the heavenly throng in mansions passing fair.

'Beside a stream she stooped to cull a flower;
"This planted near his monument," she said,
"And watered by affection's dewy shower,
Awhile may bloom in honour of the dead.
Why, Meredyth, by idle terrors led,
Did thy distracted Cona trust the wave?
Oh! I for ever should have made my bed
On grassy turf, whose verdure wraps thy grave,
Though piercing winds did blow and angry tempests rave.

'"Wretch that I am I broke a parent's heart;
Yes, I who was his solace and his stay,
I planted in his soul a poisoned dart,
The hour from Cambria's shores I fled away—
O cruel child, unworthy of the day!"
Then copiously her tears began to flow,
Bright as the rain-drops in the sunny ray,
Her cheek was crimsoned with a hectic glow,
Of phrenzy were her cries, and long and wild her woe.'

We do not admire the Latin order of the genitive case before the nominative in the last line of this passage; nor, perhaps, the medical expression of '*hectic* glow' in the last line but one; and some other expressions occur which, we think, the good taste of our readers will condemn. It is scarcely necessary to add, for the explanation of the events mentioned in the extract, that Cona, on the supposed death of her father and her lover, had fled in wild mood to Ireland, where the above striking rencontre and recognition take place. We shall not acquaint our readers with the conclusion of the story, for obvious reasons: but, returning to one other common-place of the poet, we shall only notice a few verbal errors, and then take our leave of him in much good humour.

The early studies and pleasures of Meredyth and Cona having been pleasingly described, the ensuing old but always interesting sort of apostrophe naturally occurs:

'Oh! if a ray of heaven descend on earth,
'Tis when in spring of life love's kindling flame
Refines the virtues as it gives them birth,
Exalting and ennobling every aim,
Making by kindly glow two souls the same,
Where every feeling finds an answering chord,
That sweetly vibrates through the thrilling frame,
Unmarred by strife and jealousy abhorred,
While every word and thought and joy and grief accord.'

We have censured the occasional substitution of singular for plural, and the omission of the article, in this poem; and, tired as we are with noticing errors so generally prevalent in the ephemeral trash which besets us, we still cannot help pointing them out in a work of any merit. Another species of fault is observable in the occurrence of too many rhymes of similar termination, and of more than two syllables:—for instance, '*astonishment*' and '*tenement*' and '*battlement*' in one stanza. The French, we know, permit these homoteleutic terminations: but to an English ear they are offensive; and the words above mentioned have also, as we have implied, an Hudibrastic effect, (from their unwieldy length at the end of a verse,) which completely destroys all epic seriousness and dignity. Such rhymes as '*victory*' and '*revelry*' and '*chivalry*,' are more in the style of the player's prologue in Hamlet:

"For us and for our tragedy," &c.

a style that we have so constantly to censure in modern versification. '*Commotion*' and '*motion*' and '*devotion*' are of an equally objectionable description. Oh! for something still more uniformly like the correct language, and the easy and natural versification, of the purer æra of our literature!

ART. IV. *Sonnets, Odes, and other Poems,* by the late Mr. Charles Leftley; together with a short Account of his Life and Writings. To which is added a poetical Collection, consisting of Elegies, Ballads, and Sketches, on various Subjects, chiefly descriptive, written in India, and during a Voyage to and from Madras. By W. Linley, Esq. late in the Service of the India Company. 12mo. pp. 199. 7s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

MR. LINLEY, the brother of the accomplished and well known Mrs. Sheridan, has in our opinion too highly rated the poetical talents of his friend Mr. Leftley; in whose compositions we find more of affectation than of legitimate fancy, and more of excentricity than of genius. The *Sonnets* are not many in number, and the first may probably afford as fair a sample as any:

'If we may credit ancient tales of fancy,
  In fairy land such magic dwelt in numbers,
That valiant knights, well vers'd in necromancy,
  By these have burst enchanted virgins' slumbers.
Oh! may such virtue medicate my sonnet!
  May it become an amulet so holy,
That, when you bend, sweet maid, your eyes upon it,
  All ills may fly, pain, grief, and melancholy!
Despair not then: thy cause, my fair, is aided;
  No longer (burning, pining, and dejected,
Thy bright eyes dimm'd, thy rosy color faded,
  Thy pulse fast beating, thy chaste blood infected,)
By that grim giant, fever, be invaded; —
  Sleep in thy bower secure, by love protected.'

The following is in a better manner: it has something of the quaintness of our own older bards, with something of the rapture of Tibullus:

'How comes my mistress? like a bridemaid clad,
  Or like a nun, who thinks all pleasure vain?
  I would not have her throb like me, with pain,
And yet, methinks, I would not have her glad:

So *long* an absence should have made her sad;
Yet why be sad to meet my kiss again?
Oh! no; like me she should affect disdain,
And yet, like me, be rapturously mad!
I fain would see her, full of hopes and fears,
Hang on my neck with pleasure and with shame!
Behold her bright eyes smile, and smile in tears,
And hear her falter as she lisps my name:
Oh! if the vagrant beauty thus appears,
Love light thy torch!—I bid adieu to fame!'

Of the Odes, that which is intitled 'The Hunting of Havardur' is open to the objection that all the subjects of Runic mythology are become trite and uninteresting. The ode 'On the Baptism of a beloved Child' is by far the most favourable specimen, and we select the address to the Infant as very pretty:

'Ah! lovely babe, forbear to weep,
Forbear to swell the deepening sigh,
Thy first, thy best of friends is nigh,
To pillow up thine infant charms
Safe in the cradle of her arms,
And hush thy little cares to sleep.
As shadows, skimming o'er the lake,
Ting'd with the reddening morning's glow,
May sorrow travel o'er thy mind;
That when the clouds of trouble break,
No dusky hue be seen below,
No printed current left behind.
Lull'd on the rosy couch of rest
May all thy coming years be blest;
Nor e'er forget thy father's toil,
Thy mother's watchful nights, her vivifying smile;
But ever great, and ever good,
Unlock the fountains of thy heart,
And thence, with liberal grace, impart
The golden stream of gratitude!'

The next division of Mr. Leftley's poems is termed 'Flights of Fancy.' We have frequently met with some of these in MS., and rather think that they have attracted attention: but to us they appear simply trifling;—witness such *flights* as

'Zephyr, whither art thou straying!
Tell me where?
With prankish girls in gardens playing,
False as fair?
A butterfly's light back bestriding,
Queen bees to honeysuckles guiding,
Or in a swinging hairbell riding,
Free from care?

'Before Aurora's car you amble,
High in air;
At noon, when Neptune's sea-nymphs gambol,
Braid their hair;
When on the tumbling billows rolling,
Or on the smooth sands idly strolling,
Or in cool grottos they lie lolling,
You sport there.

'To chase the moonbeams up the mountains
You prepare;
Or dance with elves on brinks of fountains,
Mirth to share:
Now seen with love-lorn lilies weeping,
Now with a blushing rose-bud sleeping,
While fays from forth their chambers peeping,
Cry, O rare!'

Or,

'"On the down of a thistle I fly."
"Whither, oh, whither?"
"To great Oberon's court,
Where they say there's fine sport."
"So do I."
"So do I."
"So do I."
"And I prithee, sprite, let's go together."

'And now beneath the broad oak's shade,
Whose bowers the luscious woodbine braid,
Their cups of dew the fairies quaff,
And sport and sing, and jest and laugh,
While many a zephyr perch'd on high
Pipes to their midnight revelry.

'But hush! they hear
Shrill chanticleer
Before the barn-door wind his horn;
And, hark! from yonder field of corn
The lark salutes the day.
And now the village clock strikes one:
See, see, the antic dance is done;
The lights all quench'd; the music's still;
And, ere the sun can climb the hill,
The fays run round the globe and chase the night away.
And when the nightingale repeats
Her melancholy strain,
Perhaps in these belov'd retreats
They may rejoice again.'

Of the Miscellaneous Poems, the first, called 'Shadir, an Oriental Eclogue,' is very common-place; it retains all the propriate Eastern terms, but without the glow of Oriental warmth that distinguishes the Eclogues of Collins, which, however, are among the least successful of the efforts of that admirable poet. The imitations of Cornelius Gallus and Horace are not particularly happy.—Mr. Leftley seems to have been a very correct versifier, since his cadences are musical, and few bad rhymes or verbal faults occur to disgust his readers: but those who have formed their taste on the best models will find too little of simplicity, and (as we have already intimated) not sufficient genius to bear out the style of excentricity which pervades these compositions. The sketch of the author's biography, which his editor has produced, does credit to both. It appears that Mr. Leftley, like many other candidates for poetical fame, was brought up in the hard school of adversity; and, also like too many others, his bodily frame very early gave way under the exertions of his mind. The memoir is interesting; and, taken in connection with it, the productions certainly shew that much might have been expected if the author had been placed in more encouraging circumstances. It will be seen from the foregoing remarks, however, that our criticisms do not exactly coincide with those of the biographer.

The original pieces of the editor, Mr. Linley, appear to us worthy of more praise than he claims for them in his short preface. Who will deny the epithet of *touching* to the Elegy on the death of the author's accomplished sister, to whom we have already alluded? Those who bear in memory that lady's beautiful lines to the violin of another (elder) brother will surely recognize a kindred spirit in this Elegy.

'In these lone shades, in this sequestered grove
Sacred to sorrow's plaint, I touch my lyre;
True to the feelings of fraternal love,
Its saddest chord shall vibrate, and expire.

'Oh, most beloved! my sister and my friend!
While kindred woes still breathe around thine urn,
Long with the tear of absence must *I* blend
The sigh, that speaks "Thou never shalt return!"

'Yet, not for thee reserved, the gloomy power
Shook o'er thy fading form his fiercer dart,
A gentler mandate mark'd *thy* parting hour,
And hush'd the keener throbbings of thy heart.

''Twas Faith, that bending o'er the bed of death,
Shot o'er thy pallid cheek a transient ray,
With softer effort sooth'd thy labouring breath,
Gave grace to anguish, beauty to decay.

'Thy friends, thy children claimed thy latest care,
Their's was the last that to thy bosom clung;
For them, to heaven put up th' expiring prayer,
The last that faltered on thy trembling tongue.

'Oh, most beloved! my sister and my friend!
Thy death, thus lovely, still must I deplore;
Still, as some new regrets my bosom rend,
Dwell on past pleasures to return no more.

'And though an *angel*'s bliss may now be thine,
And holier transports lift thy thoughts, above;
May one, one last sad solace still be mine,
The fond remembrance of the sister's love!

'Let me retrace those early, happy years,
When kind indulgence oped her store of charms,
When flush'd with joy, or scared by childish fears,
I press'd the *mother* in the *sister*'s arms!

'When to thy lyre with timid hope I sung,
Affection beaming from thine eyes the while,
And my young heart, with wild emotion, sprung
To catch each glance, each dear approving smile:

'When, as I grew, thy ever watchful zeal
Check'd each rash impulse of my wavering youth,
Taught me each manlier sentiment to feel,
And walk with honour in the paths of truth.

'When at the last: ah, then! when hope had flown,
Thy mind unchang'd its best monition gave;
It seem'd to speak a lesson scarce its own,
To breathe a purity beyond the grave.

'That lesson, fix'd for ever in my breast,
Shall teach me, now, my sorrows to suppress:
Drive feverish fancies from my couch of rest,
And picture brighter scenes to soothe and bless.

'So shall my soul, resign'd to heaven's decree,
To virtue's tranquil meed once more aspire,
Nor shall my thoughts, though fondly turn'd to thee,
Bid pleasure leave me, or be mute my lyre.'

The author recurs, with great beauty and feeling, to the same subject at the close of the last poem in the present collection, written on his return from India:

'Methinks already to my anxious eyes
The long lost scenes of early youth arise;
I hear congratulating friends rejoice,
And catch the music of each well known voice,
Save only thine, my sister; thou no more
Shalt on mine ear thy soothing accents pour,

Unless, as o'er thy cold grave I bewail,
Fancy should waft them on the murmuring gale.
No, thou art gone for ever! Ah! how vain
The bitter recollection to restrain,
That thou art gone, nor couldst to me impart
The fondest, latest wishes of thy heart;
And that thy brother could not earlier prove,
How dear he held thy virtues, priz'd thy love.'

The Address to Music, among the 'Monthly Sketches,' is in the same style of feeling:

'Friend of my youth, soother of every care
  That cross'd its flowery path; O! may'st thou long
  With all thy tenderest eloquence of song
Beguile life's sorrows; from my bosom tear
  Each stormy passion that its rest invades.
Lull'd by thy strain, a sad remembrance steals
  Into my thoughts, and for a moment fades
  Hope's fairy prospect from my longing sight;
For then my mind a mournful impulse feels
  To dwell on days, long lost, of past delight,
When by my father's side I bent mine ear
  To sweet instruction in thy winning art.
And shall I check the sigh, suppress the tear
  That flows from filial love, and stills my throbbing heart?
Ah! no; for ever let me turn to thee
Delightful power of harmony,
And from thy ever-varying measure,
Snatch the purest sweets of pleasure,
In strains that bid grief's wilder tumults cease,
That warm to piety, and soothe to peace.'

As a detached piece, we have not lately met with any thing more simple and pleasing than these lines on

'FRAILTY.

'A flower she bloom'd, whose early tints,
  The sweetest, purest fragrance shed,
And meekness, feeling, sense, and truth,
  Were the soft leaves that deck'd its head.

'I pluck'd, alas! this beauteous flower,
  Where so much seeming lustre shone,
The gaudier bloom 'tis true remain'd,
  But virtue's balmy scent was gone!'

On the whole, the present volume, considered as a candidate for a place in a lady's library, is intitled to our commendation: though the poems are of a character which generally seems more suited to circulation in manuscript than in print.

Art. V. *Succisivæ Operæ:* or, Selections from ancient Writers, sacred and profane, with Translations and Notes. By the Rev. H. Meen, B.D. 8vo. pp. 124. Rivingtons, &c. 1815.

Some years ago, Mr. Meen made his *debut* before the public as the author of annotations on the Cassandra of Lycophron; a work which was highly creditable to his learning, and, though small in itself, contained an abundant stock of materials for farther investigation. (See Rev. Vol. xxxvii. N. S. p. 364.) It was his subsequent intention to have edited the entire poem on the same plan; a task for which he then shewed himself eminently qualified, by his attainments in the language, by his habitual study of the obscure sentiments and style of the poet, and by his knowlege of the manners and customs of antiquity; but we regret to perceive that he has been deterred from this design, and, in lieu of it, has presented us with a portion of literary scraps, too miscellaneous for general utility, and of a character not sufficiently prominent, we fear, to recompense his toil. Lycophron and Pindar occupy the chief portion of the present pages; which are occasionally interspersed with some ingenious annotations on Horace, and a few remarks on select passages of the New Testament. The notes on Lycophron, notwithstanding the previous commentary of Tzetzes, the erudition of Canter, and the indefatigable perseverance of Potter, may still tend in a great degree to illustrate the obscurities of the poem; being written with much critical sagacity, and with unvaried attention to the sense and spirit of the author; while the conjectural emendations, which are seldom indulged, are managed with ability and submitted with diffidence.

Mr. Meen's note on that obscure passage of the Cassandra,

> Καὶ τὸν θεᾷ κλαυσθέντα Γαύαντος τάφον,
> Σχοινίδι μουσόφθαρτον, Ἀρέντᾳ, Ξένῃ,
> Κραντῆρι λευκῷ τὸν ϖοτ' ἔκτανε ϖλέλας,

displays considerable ingenuity; though, with regard to the conjectural part of it, we know not that we are yet entirely convinced. The tomb of Adonis, over which the goddess wept, is here enumerated in the predictions of the prophetess as among the objects of research in the peregrinations of Menelaus; and the words Σχοινίδι, Ἀρέντᾳ, Ξένῃ, have always been considered as epithets belonging to Venus. Instead of Ἀρέντᾳ, however, Mr. Meen proposes to read ἀρθέντα, *raised up*; and he conceives the passage to allude to the festival of Adonis, annually celebrated on the banks of the Nile. He observes:

'*Σχοινίδι*, the scholiast tells us, is from *σχοινὶς*· the same in sense with *σχοῖνος*, *a bulrush*. The former part of the festival of Adonis, the reader will recollect, was devoted to excessive sorrow; the latter to every kind of revelry and rejoicing. During the time that the image of Adonis remained in its place of interment, they lamented. From the commencement of its elevation, the joy became general. The image of Adonis was deposited in a basket, made of the rushes of the Nile. It was let down and drawn up by rushes twisted together, and held by the women, who superintended at the ceremony.'

Thus, by conceiving the word *μουσόφθαϱτον* to refer not to *τάφον* but to *τὸν* in the last line, the construction will be, *τὸν*, i. e., *Ἄδωνιν, ϖλέλας ϖοτ᾽ ἔκτανε· τὸν μουσόφθαϱτον, τὸν ἀϱθέντα σκοινίδι ξένῃ.*

The author's emendation of the line, *Ῥαίσει τϱιπάτϱῳ φασγάνῳ Κανδάονος*, appears not equally happy. The subject of this part of Cassandra's prophetic narrative is the well-known death of her sister Polyxena. Pyrrhus, says she, shall murder my sister Polyxena, *τϱιπάτϱῳ φασγάνῳ Κανδάονος*. The word *Κανδάονος* is interpreted by the scholiast "*Orionis*:" but Mr. Meen is disposed to think that Mars is here meant, remarking: 'The sword of Mars is an expression for a warlike weapon, and the proper name is here used instead of the epithet derived from it.' In pursuance of this idea, he proposes to read *τϱίπάλτῳ*, *thrice-brandished*, in the room of *τϱιπάτϱῳ*; and this conjecture he supports by the consideration that Pyrrhus, although he had bound himself by oath to perform the sacrifice in obedience to the demand of his father's spirit, must yet have been so far softened by the spotless innocence and beauty of the victim, that for a while the sword remained suspended over her head, before the blow was struck. Now with all due deference to the sagacity of the learned annotator, we cannot but think that *τϱίπαλτος* here would convey quite an opposite idea; namely, that of infuriated anger, of vehement and bitter resentment, an inflamed vindictive spirit,—any thing, in short, rather than the hesitation arising from *the conflict of contending passions*, or any feeling of pity or remorse, sentiments so diametrically opposite to the relentless and blood-thirsty character of Pyrrhus: but we cannot, indeed, see the necessity for the emendation. *τϱιπάτϱῳ* may either signify, according to the scholiast, *τϱιδεσπότῳ*, expressive that the sword had passed successively through the hands of three different possessors, or it may refer, which we think is more probable, to the fabulous genealogy of Orion.

The translations interspersed throughout this volume possess considerable merit; being as close and faithful as the different genius of the languages would permit; while the spirit of the original is never suffered to evaporate in the transfusion, nor enfeebled by want of compression. Witness this specimen from the Cassandra, sect. v.:

'Twice and again my tears for Ilion flow,
Doom'd to behold fresh spectacles of woe;
When swords the mightiest of her chiefs shall slay,
And flames in ashes her proud structures lay.
Yes; for my town fresh tides of sorrow spring,
And for the tombs of many an antient king:
For his, the chief sepulchral piles among,
The diver's tomb, from Atlas' daughter sprung,
Like Ister's boar, he stems the beating tides,
A solitary swimmer, girt with hides.
Saos, the Corybantes' guarded seat,
He left; fleet swimming like the fowl of Crete.
He left Zerinthus, in whose secret caves
The dog-destroying goddess nightly raves:
What time vindictive Jove, in bursting rains
Descending, pour'd a deluge on the plains;
When the tall towers, that long the storm withstood,
Bow'd to the blast, and sunk beneath the flood;
When the pale wretch, exerting every limb,
Saw death before him, and still strove to swim;
To groves and vineyards whales and dolphins stray'd,
Devour'd the mast, and on the vintage prey'd;
And hungry sea-calves, eager to be fed,
Rush'd to men's roofs, and shelter'd in their bed.'

The same fidelity and poetical spirit are exhibited in the translations from Pindar; though this author has so frequently made his appearance in an entire English costume, that detached passages alone, as they can afford but little utility, are intitled to less commendation. The following brief extract will perhaps justify what we have before said of Mr. Meen's talents for translation:

'PIND. NEM. έ. Stroph. I.

'I am no statuary, skill'd to place
Sculptur'd figures on their base;
Which, could I form them with an artist's hand,
For ever motionless must stand.
But go, sweet ode; Ægina quit;
Sail in all ships, with every pinnace flit;
And say, that Lampon's valiant son
Hath the Pancration chaplet won;
That Pytheas' conquests fame proclaims,
Gain'd at the Nemean games.
Not yet his cheek hath shewn
Mellow Autumn's tender down!
Autumn, mother of the vine,
Round which the turgid clusters twine.'

We regret that we have not room to treat more at large of this part of the work, but must pass on to the remaining portions of it. The author's remarks on Nicander are just and appropriate, but by no means novel. We knew before that Potter was deterred from his intention of giving to the world an improved edition of Nicander by the want of MSS., and the pressure of divers other engagements; and few, we think, can be ignorant that 'of his numerous works only the Theriaca and Alexipharmaca have reached us.'

That Virgil was an imitator of Nicander (for of whom was he not an imitator?) we are induced to believe, as well from the valuable work of Ursinus as from the elaborate detail of Heynè: but whether Milton were so or not, we think, has hitherto been but imperfectly proved.

Among other miscellaneous articles, the controversy between Pfochenius and Gataker on the purity of the language of the New Testament has found a place in this literary pamphlet. The latter, our readers will recollect, maintains in his *Adversaria* that the New Testament is not written in classical Greek; and that the frequent intermixture of Hebrew idioms, though it may enrich and embellish the sacred volume, takes away from the purity of its style. Pfochenius was the advocate of the opposite doctrine, and the result of the argument turned on the question whether the phrase τὸ ϖρόσωπον τοῦ οὐρανοῦ partook of the nature of an Hebraism, or not. It was denied by Pfochenius, on the grounds that Lycophron has attached the epithet ϖολυπρόσωπον to οὐρανὸν: but this mode of reasoning Gataker took up with much severity, denied the authority of Lycophron, and quoted a critique from Aristotle in support of his argument. "*Poeta tamen*," says he, "*et poetarum si quis alius, imò ultrà quàm alius quis, dictionis extraneæ atque insolentis, quá legentibus crucem figat, stultissimus affectator; quin et epitheti illius ipsius, quod hic adducitur, nomine, quod nec Pfochenius ipse tacuit, ab Aristotele, Rhet. l.* 3. *c.* 3. *reprehensus*." From the circumstance, however, of the phrase ϖολυπρόσωπον οὐρανὸν not being found in the Cassandra, Mr. Meen appears to think that the antient poet recorded by Aristotle in these opprobrious terms was a different personage. We confess that we see nothing in the premises which favours this inference: — though the passage be no where to be found in the Cassandra, may it not have been in any other of the numerous works of Lycophron, in his tragedies for instance, which have never come down to us? We could have wished that Mr. M. had been more explicit on this point, and that he had produced the proofs which he mentions in support of his opinion.

It is time, however, that we dismiss this small work; from which, to say the truth, we have derived considerable amusement, since it contains many just observations, tending at once to gratify our curiosity and to excite our interest. Criticism is so much the favourite topic of the day, that perhaps the world, notwithstanding the abundance of notes and commentaries under which the press has never ceased to groan, from the days of Scaliger to those of Porson, is not yet saturated with the feast: the moment, therefore, is certainly an auspicious one: but we are of opinion that the learning and talents of the present author might have been directed in a channel of more extensive utility and more general interest. We sincerely trust that nothing will again deter him from exercising his abilities in a field to which they are so conspicuously fitted: for we feel perfectly assured that an improved edition of some of the many authors of antiquity, to whose writings his attention appears to have been devoted with so much success, will much sooner obtain the recompence of public favour than either selections from his note-book or the scrapings of his portfolio.

Art. VI. *An Introduction to Entomology:* or Elements of the Natural History of Insects: with Plates. By William Kirby, B.A. F.L.S., Rector of Barham, and William Spence, Esq. F.L.S. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 536. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

In this country, the study of entomology, notwithstanding its allurements, still labours under a degree of neglect of which it is not easy to assign the cause. Perhaps our notions of dignity and utility are too often the creatures of prejudice, or of our preposterous estimations of things. Because, forsooth, an object is small in its dimensions, we are apt to undervalue its importance, or to pronounce that it is unworthy of our regards: but greatness and smallness are terms of relative significance; and the most minute animal that exists in the universe evinces, in its structure and motions, in its devices and habits, the power and wisdom of its Creator, in a manner as striking and impressive as the whale or the elephant. Mr. Gibbon, our readers may recollect, closes his splendid description of the church of St. Sophia with this reflection: "Yet how dull is the artifice, how insignificant is the labour, if it be compared with the formation of the vilest insect that crawls upon the surface of the temple!" In correct language, however, no creature can be denominated *vile* which proceeds from the hand of Omnipotence, and the theory

of

of whose organization and vitality may, perhaps, for ever mock the utmost efforts of human ingenuity and research.

On this topic we might easily enlarge: but the multiplied and striking facts contained in the volume before us supersede all farther extension of the argument. Indeed, if any person will candidly peruse even this imperfect portion of the intended work, and yet seriously maintain that the history of the insect-tribes is either frivolous or uninviting, we should despair of working, by any powers of logic, on the stubbornness of his conviction.

In the course of their first and second letters, the authors exhibit a temperate and considerate view of the inducements to prosecute their favourite department of zoology, and of the objections which have been urged against it; proving, by a train of legitimate inductions, that, if the contemplation of any other province of animated nature be attended with pleasure and instruction, the study of the various families of insects possesses these advantages in a still more eminent degree. In reply to the alleged frivolity of such speculations, they furnish reasons that are not less cogent than convincing; and the charge of cruelty, which has been so generally and with so much plausibility imputed to the entomologist, is thus ably opposed:

'That the science of entomology cannot be properly cultivated without the death of its objects, and that this is not to be effected without putting them to some pain, must be allowed; but that this substantiates the charge of cruelty against us I altogether deny. Cruelty is an unnecessary infliction of suffering, when a person is fond of torturing or destroying God's creatures from mere wantonness, with no useful end in view; or when, if their death be useful and lawful, he has recourse to circuitous modes of killing them, where direct ones would answer equally well. This is cruelty, and this with you I abominate; but not the infliction of death when a just occasion calls for it.

'They who see no cruelty in the sports of the field, as they are called, can never, of course, consistently allege such a charge against the entomologist; the tortures of wounded birds, of fish that swallow the hook and break the line, or of the hunted hare, being, beyond comparison, greater than those of insects destroyed in the usual mode. With respect to utility, the sportsman, who, though he adds indeed to the general stock of food, makes amusement his primary object, must surely yield the palm to the entomologist, who adds to the general stock of mental food, often supplies hints for useful improvements in the arts and sciences, and the objects of whose pursuit, unlike those of the former, are preserved and may be applied to use for many years.

'But in the view even of those few who think inhumanity chargeable upon the sportsman, it will be easy to place considerations which may rescue the entomologist from such reproof. It is well known that, in proportion as we descend in the scale of being, the sensibility of the objects that constitute it diminishes. The Tortoise walks about after losing its head; and the Polypus, so far from being injured by the application of the knife, thereby acquires an extension of existence. Insensibility almost equally great may be found in the insect world. This, indeed, might be inferred *à priori*, since Providence seems to have been more prodigal of insect life than of that of any other order of creatures, animalcula perhaps alone excepted. No part of the creation is exposed to the attack of so many enemies, or subject to so many disasters; so that the few individuals of each kind which enrich the valued museum of the entomologist, many of which are dearer to him than gold or gems, are snatched from the ravenous maw of some bird or fish, or rapacious insect, would have been driven by the winds into the waters and drowned, or trodden under foot by man or beasts,—for it is not easy, in some parts of the year, to set foot to the ground without crushing these minute animals: and thus also, instead of being buried in oblivion, they have a kind of immortality conferred upon them. Can it be believed that the beneficent Creator, whose tender mercies are over all his works, would expose these helpless beings to such innumerable enemies and injuries, were they endued with the same sense of pain and irritability of nerve with the higher orders of animals?

'But this inference is reduced to certainty, when we attend to the facts which insects every day present to us, proving that the very converse of our great poet's conclusion,

——"The poor beetle that we tread upon,
In corporal sufferance finds a pang as great
As when a giant dies,"

must be regarded as nearer the truth. Not to mention the peculiar organization of insects, which strongly favours the idea I am inculcating, but which will be considered more properly in another place, their sang froid upon the loss of their limbs, even those that we account most necessary to life, irrefragably proves that the pain they suffer cannot be very acute. Had a giant lost an arm or a leg, or were a sword or spear run through his body, he would feel no great inclination for running about, dancing or eating. Yet a Tipula will leave half its legs in the hands of an unlucky boy who has endeavoured to catch it, and will fly here and there with as much agility and unconcern as if nothing had happened to it; and an insect impaled upon a pin will often devour its prey with as much avidity as when at liberty. Were a giant eviscerated, his body divided in the middle, or his head cut off, it would be all over with him; he would move no more; he would be dead to the calls of hunger; or the emotions of fear, anger, or love. Not so our insects. I have seen the common cockchafer walk about with apparent indifference after some bird had nearly emptied its body of its viscera; a humble bee will eat honey with greediness though deprived of its abdomen; and I myself lately saw an ant, which had been brought out of the nest by its comrades, walk when deprived of its head. The head of a wasp will attempt to bite after it is separated from the rest of the body: and the abdomen under similar circumstances, if the finger be moved to it, will attempt to sting. And what is more extraordinary, the headless trunk of a male Mantis has been known to unite itself to the other sex *. These facts, out of hundreds that might be adduced, are surely sufficient to prove that insects do not experience the same acute sensations of pain with the higher orders of animals, which Providence has endowed with more ample means of avoiding them; and since they were to be exposed so universally to attack and injury, this is a most merciful provision in their favour; for, were it otherwise, considering the wounds, and dismemberments, and lingering deaths that insects often suffer, what a vast increase would there be of the general sum of pain and misery! You will now, I think, allow that the most humane person need not hesitate a moment, whether he shall devote himself to the study of entomology, on account of any cruelty attached to the pursuit.'

The third letter treats of the *Metamorphoses* of insects, as they have been termed, and includes a short history of some of the most remarkable of those transitions, or developements of the successive stages of their being, which most of them undergo; proceeding from the *egg* to the *larva*, from the *larva* to the *pupa*, and from the *pupa* to the *imago*, or perfect state. Here it is properly observed that, in some species, as the cock-roaches, locusts, bugs, and spiders, the *pupæ* not only greatly resemble the perfect insect in form, but are, like it, capable of eating and moving; so that the common notion, that insects in the *pupa*-state take no food, is to be received with qualification.

In the five succeeding letters, a copious theme is discussed; namely, the Direct and Indirect Injuries occasioned by insects to mankind, or their attacks either on our persons or our property. The catalogue of *Direct Injuries* commences with the annoying inroads of *pediculus humanus*. It appears, however, that this species is never subcutaneous; and that the malady denominated *phthiriasis*, or *morbus pedicularis*, is produced either by another species of the same genus, or by an *acarus*. One species of the latter is frequently connected with *scabies*: but it is still doubtful whether it is the cause of that disorder, or merely inhabits the pustules as an appropriate nidus. From the facts recorded by Drs. Adams, Bateman, Willan, &c., the present authors deem themselves warranted to infer that the *acarus* is not invariably the cause of itch, cases

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'* Dr. Smith's Tour, i. 162. Journ. de Phys. xxv. 336.'

having occurred in which no animalcule can be perceived; and that, therefore, the disease produced by the insect is specifically different from that in which it cannot be found. The subject, however, is still involved in obscurity.

From the loathsome visitations of *pediculi*, *acari scabiei*, and *larvæ*, our attention is solicited to other minute tormentors of our race, namely, the flea, chigoe, harvest-bug, &c.

'But the worst of all the tick tribe is the *Acarus Americanus*, L. described by Professor Kalm. This insect is found in the woods of North America, and is equally an enemy to man and beast. They are there so infinitely numerous, that if you sit down upon the ground or upon the trunk of a tree, or walk with naked feet or legs, they will cover you, and, plunging their serrated rostrum into the bare places of the body, begin to suck your blood, going deeper and deeper till they are half buried in the flesh. Though at first they occasion no uneasiness, when they have thus made good their settlement, they produce an intolerable itching, followed by acute pain and large tumours. It is now extremely difficult to extract them, the animal rather suffering itself to be pulled to pieces than let go its hold, so that the rostrum and head being often left in the wound, produce an inflammation and suppuration which render it deep and dangerous. These ticks are at first very small, sometimes scarcely visible, but by suction will swell themselves out till they are as big as the end of one's finger, when they often fall to the ground of themselves. (De Geer, vii. 154—160.)'

Among the *Cimices*, both the *lectularius* and the *nemorum* inflict painful bites, and feed on our blood; and St. Pierre alludes to a species of the same family whose bite is more venomous than the sting of the scorpion, and is succeeded by a tumour of the size of a pigeon's egg, which continues for four or five days.

'You are well acquainted with the history and properties of the *Raia Torpedo* and *Gymnotus electricus*; but, I dare aver, have no idea that any *insect* possesses their extraordinary powers. Yet I can assure you, upon good authority, that *Reduvius serratus*, F., commonly known in the West Indies by the name of the *Wheel-bug*, can, like them, communicate an electric shock to the person whose flesh it touches. The late Major-General Davies, of the Royal Artillery, well known as a most accurate observer of nature and an indefatigable collector of her treasures, as well as a most admirable painter of them, once informed me, that when abroad, having taken up this animal and placed it upon his hand, it gave him a considerable shock, as if from an electric jar, with its legs, which he felt as high as his shoulders; and, dropping the creature, he observed six marks upon his hand where the six feet had stood.'

The teasing and painful sensations occasioned by gnats, mosquitoes, horse-flies, &c., are familiar to every person; and in some countries, whether situated near the poles or near the equator, these creatures prove a formidable pest. Many of the hymenopterous kinds, as the bee, wasp, hornet, &c., though they do not feed on our blood, revenge a real or supposed injury by piercing us with their stings; while some sorts of ants are capable of making us feel both their bite and their sting. — The puncture of the scorpion, especially in hot climates, is often attended with dangerous or even fatal effects; and the bite of some of the larger spiders, and of the centipede, is accompanied with acute suffering. Excessive itching of the skin is produced by *Thrips physapus*, *Simulium reptans*, and the hairs of several caterpillars. The juices of several insects, too, as those of some *acari* and spiders, are found to be deleterious. Others of this class of animals infest our internal system. Thus, the grubs of *Tenebrio molitor* have often made their way into the human stomach; and the caterpillar of *Crambus pinguinalis*, F., has been found in the same viscus:

' But amongst all the orders, none is more fruitful in devourers of man than the Diptera; and these are chiefly to be found in the numerous tribe of the *Muscidæ*. The Gad-fly (*Oestrus*, L.) you have, doubtless, often heard of, and how sorely it annoys our cattle and other quadrupeds; but I suspect have no notion that there is a species appropriated to man. This indeed no entomologist dreamed of, till such a species was lately discovered in South America (but they mention it only incidentally) by Humboldt and Bonpland. Speaking of the low regions of the torrid zone, where the air is filled with those myriads of mosquitos which render uninhabitable a great and beautiful portion of the globe, they observe that to these may be joined the *Oestrus humanus*, which deposits its eggs in the skin of man, causing there painful * tumours. Even the gad-fly of the ox, leaving its proper food, has been known to oviposit in the jaw of a woman, and the bots produced from the eggs finally occasioned her death †. — Other flies also of various kinds thus penetrate into us, either preying upon our flesh, or getting into our intestines. Leeuwenhoek mentions the case of a woman whose leg had been enlarging with glandular bodies for some years. Her surgeon gave him one that he had cut from it, in which were many small maggots: these he fed with flesh till they assumed the pupa, when they produced a fly as large as the flesh-fly ‡. — A patient of Dr. Reeve, of Norwich, after suffering for some time great pain, was at last relieved by voiding a considerable number of maggots, which agree precisely with those described by De Geer as the larva of his *Musca domestica minor*, a fly which he speaks of as very common in apartments §. — In Paraguay

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' * *Essai sur la Géograph. des Plantes*, 136.'

' † Clark in Linn. Trans. iii. 323. note.'

' ‡ Leeuw. Epist. Oct. 17. 1687.'

' § Edinb. Med. and Surg. Journ. No. 35. De Geer, vi. 26, 27.'

the flesh-flies are said to be uncommonly numerous and noxious. Azara relates * that, after a storm, when the heat was excessive, he was assailed by such an army of them, that in less than half an hour his clothes were quite white with their eggs, so that he was forced to scrape them off with a knife; adding, that he has known instances of persons, who, after having bled at the nose in their sleep, were attacked by the most violent head-aches; when at length several great maggots, the offspring of these flies, issuing from their nostrils, gave them relief. — In Jamaica a large blue fly buzzes about the sick in the last stages of fever; and when they sleep or doze with their mouths open, the nurses find it very difficult to prevent these flies from laying their eggs in the nose, mouth, or gums. An instance is recorded of a lady, who, after recovering from a fever, fell a victim to the maggots of this fly, which from the nose found their way through the *os crebriforme* into the cavity of the skull, and afterwards into the brain †. One of the most shocking cases of *Scholechiasis* I ever met with is related in Bell's Weekly Messenger, in the following words: "On Thursday, June 25. died at Asbornby, (Lincolnshire,) John Page, a pauper belonging to Silk-Willoughby, under circumstances truly singular. He being of a restless disposition, and not choosing to stay in the parish workhouse, was in the habit of strolling about the neighbouring villages, subsisting on the pittance obtained from door to door: the support he usually received from the benevolent was bread and meat; and after satisfying the cravings of nature, it was his custom to deposit the surplus provision, particularly the meat, betwixt his shirt and skin. Having a considerable portion of this provision in store, so deposited, he was taken rather unwell, and laid himself down in a field in the parish of Scredington — when from the heat of the season at that time, the meat speedily became putrid, and was of course struck by the flies: these not only proceeded to devour the inanimate pieces of flesh, but also literally to prey upon the living substance; and when the wretched man was accidentally found by some of the inhabitants, he was so eaten by the maggots that his death seemed inevitable. After clearing away as well as they were able these shocking vermin, those who found Page conveyed him to Asbornby, and a surgeon was immediately procured, who declared that his body was in such a state that dressing it must be little short of instantaneous death; and in fact the man did survive the operation but a few hours. When first found, and again when examined by the surgeon, he presented a sight loathsome in the extreme; white maggots of enormous size were crawling in and upon his body, which they had most shockingly mangled, and the removing of the external ones served only to render the sight more horrid ‡." — I shall only

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'* P. 216.'

'† Lempriere On the Diseases of the Army in Jamaica, ii. 182.'

'‡ In passing through this parish last spring, I inquired of the mail-coachman whether he had heard of this story; and he said the fact was well known. K.'

mention one more instance, because it is a singular one. The larva of *Elophilus pendulus*, F., which is peculiarly formed by nature for inhabiting fluids, has been found in the stomach of a woman.*'

Among the direct injuries originating in the proceedings of insects, the authors likewise enumerate the poisonous effects which sometimes result from the eating of honey, or the drinking of mead; and the superstitious alarms which the death-watch, and a few other species, inspire in the minds of the ignorant, or of those who are under the influence of an over-delicate or morbid sensibility.

Under the head of *Indirect Injuries* are considered, first, the mischiefs which insects occasion to our *living animal property*; next, those which they entail on our *living vegetable property*; and, thirdly, those which they cause to our *dead stock*, whether of an animal or a vegetable nature. In pursuance of this division, Messrs. Kirby and Spence commence with the torments inflicted on that invaluable quadruped, the horse, by the painful punctures of the proboscis of *Stomoxys calcitrans*, the attacks of various *Tabani* and *Œstri*, of *Musca meteorica*, *Culex equinus*, *Hippobosca equina*, and the larva of *Curculio paraplecticus*. The ox is, in like manner, grievously assailed by its own *Œstrus*, by the *Stomoxys*, and some of the flies already mentioned, by the formidable *Zimb* described by Bruce, and by the *Buprestis* of the antients, which seems to belong to the genus *Mylabris*. Their thick coat of wool does not protect our sheep against the ravages of a species of *Hippobosca*, *Œstrus ovis*, the flesh-fly, and some of the more destructive kinds of ants. Even the swine has its particular kind of louse, and seeks to counteract the biting of flies by wallowing in the mire. The fallow-deer is subject to the attacks of two species of gad-fly, one of which tortures the Rein-deer in a still more dreadful manner. The faithful dog has its peculiar louse and tick; and the flea sucks his blood, as it does that of his master. Our pigeons often swarm with the bed-bug and flea, which last also readily multiplies among our poultry. The domestic bee, which supplies us with wax and honey, has to struggle against the invasion of numerous insect-enemies. Many fishes have their peculiar parasites belonging to this class; and the larvæ of *Dytisci* consume the fry of our ponds. 'Even shell-fish do not escape, for the *Nymphon grossipes* (Lat.) enters the shell of the muscle, and devours its inhabitant.'

The injuries from the same quarter, sustained by living vegetables that are serviceable to man, are exemplified in the

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'* Philos. Mag. ix. 366.'

havoc which is made in the corn-crops by various species of flies and grubs, and in our stores of grain by the weevil and other minute depredators. Oats are not exempted from the ravages of the wire-worm; and maize is frequently devoured by a little beetle which Latreille has denominated *Phaleria cornuta*. Our peas and beans are often very materially affected by the *Aphides*, or leaf-lice.

'As almost every animal has its peculiar *louse*, so has almost every plant its peculiar *leaf-louse*; and, next to locusts, these are the greatest enemies of the vegetable world, and like them are sometimes so numerous as to darken the air*. The multiplication of these little creatures is infinite and almost incredible. Providence has endued them with privileges promoting fecundity, which no other insects possess: at one time they are viviparous, at another oviparous; and, what is most remarkable and without parallel, the sexual intercourse of one original pair serves for all the generations which proceed from the female for a whole succeeding year. Reaumur has proved that in five generations one Aphis may be the progenitor of 5,904,900,000 descendants; and it is supposed that in one year there may be twenty generations†. This astonishing fecundity exceeds that of any known animal; and we cannot wonder that a creature so prolific should be proportionably injurious: some species, however, seem more so than others. Those that attack wheat, oats, and barley, of which there are more kinds than one, seldom multiply so fast as to be very noxious to those plants; while those which attack pulse spread so rapidly, and take such entire possession, that the crop is greatly injured, and sometimes destroyed by it. This was the case with respect to peas in the year 1810, when the produce was not much more than the seed sown; and many farmers turned their swine into their pea-fields, not thinking them worth harvesting. The damage in this instance was caused solely by the Aphis, and was universal throughout the kingdom, so that a sufficient supply for the navy could not be obtained. The earlier peas are sown, the better chance they stand of escaping, at least in part, the effects of this vegetable Phthiriasis.—Beans are also often great sufferers from another species of leaf-louse, in some districts from its black colour called the *Collier*, which begins at the top of the plant, and so keeps multiplying downwards. The best remedy in this case, which also tends to set the beans well, and improves both their quality and quantity, is to top them as soon as the Aphides begin to appear, and carrying away the tops to burn‡ or bury them.—In a late stage of growth, great havoc is often

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'* I say this upon the authority of Mr. Wolnough, of Alderton (late of Boyton), in Suffolk, an intelligent agriculturist, and a most acute and accurate observer of nature.'

'† Reaum. vi. 566.'

'‡ Where there is a large breadth of beans, the ashes thus produced would make good manure.'

made in peas by the grub of a small beetle, (*Bruchus granarius,* L.,) which will sometimes lay an egg in every pea of a pod, and thus destroy it. — Something similar I have been told (I suspect it is a short-snouted weevil) occasionally injures beans. In this country, however, the mischief caused by the Bruchus is seldom very serious; but in North America another species (*B. Pisi,* L.) is most alarmingly destructive, its ravages being at one time so universal as to put an end in some places tò the cultivation of that favourite pulse. No wonder then that Kalm should have been thrown into such a trepidation upon discovering some of these pestilent insects just disclosed in a parcel of peas he had brought from that country, lest he should be the instrument of introducing so fatal an evil into his beloved Sweden.’ [*]

The seed of the purple and of the white clover is infested by two species of *Apion;* and the grubs of *Melolontha vulgaris* and *pulverulenta* occasion extensive devastation in our green pastures and meadows, while the larvæ of *Bombyx graminis* have been known to lay waste the herbage of whole provinces in the north. The grub of *Phalæna frumentalis* subsists on crops of various sorts of grain; the wire-worm, during five years, lives on the roots of wheat, oats, barley, &c.; the sugar-cane, cotton, tobacco, &c. have their appropriate hosts of minute plunderers: as have our most useful pot-herbs, our most delicate fruits, and our most stately groves and plantations. An entire letter is devoted to relations of the sudden ruin which myriads of locusts diffuse over tracts of gay fertility and verdure.

Our lifeless property, whether consisting of articles of food, clothes, timber, furniture, or medicine, — nay, the very objects of our study and amusement, — are, in like manner, often seriously injured by noxious insects; as by the larva of *Tenebrio molitor,* various species of *Dermestides, Blattæ, Muscæ,* hornets, wasps, ants, moths, capricorn-beetles, &c. &c.

‘How dear are their books, their cabinets of the various productions of nature, and their collections of prints and other works of art and science, to the learned, the scientific, and the virtuosi! Even these precious treasures have their insect-enemies. The larva of *Crambus pinguinalis* will establish itself upon the binding of a book, and spinning a robe, which it covers with its own excrement [†], will do it no little injury. *Acarus eruditus* eats the paste that fastens the paper over the edges of the binding, and so loosens it [‡]. I have also often observed the caterpillar of another little moth, of which I have not ascertained the species, that takes its station in damp old books, between the leaves, and there commits great ravages; and many a black-letter rarity, which in these days

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‘[*] Kalm's Travels, i. 173.’ ‘[†] Reaum. iii. 270.’

‘[‡] Schrank Enum. Ins. Aust. 513. 1058.’

of Bibliomania would have been valued at its weight in gold, has been snatched by these destroyers from the hands of book-collectors. Besides, this *Anobium striatum* will bore through an entire volume. The two animals last mentioned also destroy prints and drawings, whether framed or preserved in a porte-feuille. Our collections of quadrupeds, birds, insects, and plants have likewise several terrible insect-enemies, which without pity or remorse often destroy or mutilate our most highly prized specimens. *Ptinus Fur*, L., and *Byrrhus Musæorum*, L., are amongst the worst, especially the latter, whose singular gliding larva, when once it gets amongst them, makes astonishing havoc, the birds soon shedding their feathers, and the insects falling to pieces. — One of the worst plagues of the entomologist are the mites (*Acarus destructor*, Schrank): these, if his specimens be at all damp, eat up all the muscular parts, (*Lytta vesicatoria* being almost the only insect that is not to their taste,) and thus entirely destroy them. — If spiders by any means get amongst them, they will do no little mischief. — Some I have observed to be devoured by a minute moth, perhaps *Tinea insectella*, F.; and in the posterior thighs of a species of *Gryllus*, F., from China, I once found, one in each thigh, a small beetle congenerous with *Tenebrio pallens*, L., that had devoured the interior. It is, I believe, either *Acarus destructor* or *eruditus* that eats the gum employed to fasten down dried plants.'

The Benefits derived from the insect-tribes may, like the Injuries, be regarded as either direct or indirect; and the ninth letter shortly views those of the last-mentioned description, while the tenth considers those of the former.

Among the *Indirect Benefits* resulting to mankind even from the attacks of these pigmy animals on the vegetable kingdom, may be reckoned that wholesome system of counter-checks, by which Nature preserves her productions in their due and respective proportions, controuling the hurtful effects of an exuberant vegetation. Thus, the countless hosts of locusts make way for a renovated scene of flowers and grasses, affording delicious herbage for the wild cattle and game; and such species of insects as prey on the roots of grasses and other plants often serve the purpose of loosening the sub-soil. Mr. Clark is inclined to think that the gentle irritation of *Œstrus equi* is useful to the stomach of the horse. 'On the same principle it is not improbable that the Tabani often act as useful phlebotomists to our full-fed animals; and that the constant motion in which they are kept in summer by the attacks of the Stomoxys, and other flies, may prevent diseases that would be brought on by indolence and repletion.'

Still more obvious sources of indirect benefit are, first, the removal of various nuisances and deformities from the face of nature; secondly, the destruction of other insects, whose unlimited multiplication would greatly injure and annoy us; and, thirdly, the supply of food to larger animals that are directly useful to us, particularly birds and fishes. Each of these considerations is illustrated by a variety of instances which our limits forbid us to particularize. We shall only remark, therefore, that even wasps and hornets have their use by destroying an infinite number of flies and other harassing insects.

As examples of the *Direct Benefits*, several species are mentioned which afford food to man; particularly the grub of the palm-weevil, the *larvæ* of several of the *Cerambycidæ*, which are accounted great delicacies, the locust, termites, &c.; and to insects it is well known that we are indebted for honey, wax, silk, various articles in the *materia medica*, and some of our finest dyes.

Letter xi. details various particulars relative to the affection of insects for their young. A great many species, it is true, are destined never to see their offspring: yet the solicitude with which they provide for their sustenance and security can be viewed in no other light than as a modification of parental tenderness and protection. As if conscious of the precise situation and circumstances adapted to the wants and accommodation of their brood, they select the spots on which the eggs may be most conveniently hatched, and the *larvæ* reared and fed; and this they accomplish with the same assiduity and affectionate concern that the larger animals display. The devices and contrivances to which the Ichneumons and others have recourse, in order to effectuate this important purpose, are truly wonderful. The *Spheges* not only collect a supply of food, but inclose it with their eggs in cells or burrows, which are often of considerable depth, and dug with great labour in the sand, or even in the solid earth.

'But an insect described by Reaumur under the name of the mason-wasp (*Epipone spinipes*, Latr.) very common in some parts of England, after having excavated a burrow, with an ingenuity to which on a future occasion I shall draw your attention, places along with its egg as food for the future young about twelve little green grubs without feet, which it has carefully selected full grown, and conveyed without injuring them. You will inquire, Why this difference of procedure? With regard to the choice of a number of small grubs rather than of one large caterpillar, what I have said in a former letter on the subject of different species of this tribe being appointed to prey upon and thus keep within due limits the larvæ of differents kinds of insects, will be a sufficient answer. But one circumstance creditable to the talents of the mason-wasp as a skilful purveyor should not be omitted, namely, that the number of grubs laid up is not always the same, but is exactly proportioned to their size, eleven or twelve being stored when they are small, but only eight or nine when larger. With respect however to the caution of the wasp in selecting full-grown grubs, and conveying them uninjured to her hole, a satisfactory explanation may be given. If those that are but partly grown were chosen, they would die in a short time for want of food, and putrefying would destroy the inclosed egg, or the young one which springs from it. But when larvæ of any kind have attained their full size, and are about to pass into the pupa state, they can exist for a long period without any further supply. By selecting these, therefore, and placing them uninjured in the hole, however long the interval before the egg hatches, the disclosed larva is sure of a sufficiency of fresh and wholesome nutriment.—To prevent the possibility of any injury to its egg from the motions or voracity of this living prey, the wasp is careful to pack the whole so closely, each grub being coiled above the other in a series of rings, and to consolidate the earth so firmly above them, that they have not the slightest power of motion *.—Those which select more powerful caterpillars, or revenge the injuries of their insect-brethren by devoting spiders to the destruction they have so often caused, take care to sting them in such a manner as, without killing them outright, will incapacitate them from doing any injury.'

Wild bees, it is well known, lay up a proper allowance of pollen or honey with each egg, to supply the wants of the maggot till it may assume the *pupa*-form. The disproportioned and laborious exertions which many species of insects undergo, for the well-being of their progeny, are not less extraordinary than the forethought and dexterity evinced by others. A wild bee, or *Sphex*, will toil unremittingly at the formation of its cells, in a hard bank of earth, scarcely allowing itself a moment for eating or repose; and many of the *Ateuchi* roll wet dung into pellets, depositing an egg in each; or push them backwards, when dry, by their hind feet into holes of a yard in depth, and often several yards distant from one another, which they have previously dug for their reception. 'Frequently the road lies across a depression in the surface, and the pellet, when nearly pushed to the summit, rolls back again. But our patient Sisyphi are not easily discouraged. They repeat their efforts again and again, and in the end their perseverance is rewarded with success.' A few individuals of a sort of beetle, termed *Necrophorus vespillo*, will quickly inter the carcase of a frog, small bird, or mole, as a nidus for their young: their mode of conducting which curious process of inhumation is detailed in a very interesting manner by Gleditsch, in the

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'* Reaum. vi. 252.'

Acts of the Berlin Society, for 1752. The sting, ovipositor, and other organs, are all admirably adapted to the appropriate exigencies of the respective species, in procuring a receptacle and provisions for the race that is destined to succeed them.

A few families belonging to this class of animals are permitted to contemplate their living progeny, as bees, wasps, ants, termites, several species of *Sphex*, ear-wigs, field-bugs, and spiders. The common ear-wig, which has been so unjustly traduced by prejudice, sits on her eggs and grubs like a hen; and the *Aranea Saccata* not only carries her eggs about with her, in a white silken bag attached to the extremity of her body, but opens a passage for the extrusion of her young, and permits them to crawl on her in all directions, feeding them until they are able to provide for themselves. From an interesting experiment recorded by Bonnet, it would appear that this spider will sooner relinquish existence than the guardianship of her ova: but nothing can exceed the unceasing care and watchfulness of bees and ants in this respect;—a department of their economy which has, of late, been admirably delineated by the elder and the younger Hüber, of Geneva. (See our Review, Vol. lii. N. S. p. 245.)

The two succeeding letters relate to the food of insects, which is always either of a vegetable or an animal description; any alleged observations to the contrary having been proved to be erroneous, and founded on deceptive appearances. Perhaps, not a single plant exists which does not afford food to one or more species of these diminutive animals; nay, every part of a vegetable has its appropriate inhabitants; and other races find their aliment in its decayed or manufactured substance. A similar extent and diversity of subsistence may be perceived among those insects which feed on the living or decayed parts of animals. Even matters apparently indigestible, as wool, hair, feathers, horn, &c. are greedily devoured by the *larvæ* of many moths and *Byrrhi*. In general, such as feed on vegetable will reject animal nourishment, and *vice versâ*, although some species have occasionally recourse to both. Many limit their desires to some single species of food, but more are capable of subsisting on various kinds. As most imbibe their aliment in a liquid state, or prey on succulent substances, they dispense with water: but the latter is essential to bees, ants, and some other tribes; and, in warm climates, to many of the lepidopterous order. 'Even some *larvæ* which feed upon juicy leaves have been observed to swallow drops of dew; and one of them (*Bombyx potatoria*), which (according to Goedart) after drinking lifts up its head like a hen, has received its name from this circumstance.

That it is not the mere want of succulency in the food which induces the necessity of drink, is plain from those larvæ which live entirely on substances so dry that it is almost unaccountable whence the juices of their body are derived. The grub of an Anobium (*Ptinus*, L.) will feed for months upon a chair that has been baking before the fire for half a century, and from which even the chemist's retort could scarcely extract a drop of moisture; and will yet have its body as well filled with fluids as that of a leaf-fed caterpillar.'

By far the greater proportion of insects feed themselves: but, in some cases, as we have seen, the young are fed by the old, or find their provisions laid up for them by their parents; and bees, ants, &c. frequently feed one another. Many of the hymenopterous kinds, which live in society, collect magazines of food for their own supply during the season of scarcity or want: but the majority of the race live from day to day, without thinking of the morrow. Some feed in the daytime, others during the night, and some, again, indifferently at all times.

'Insects, like other animals, take in their food by the mouth, but there seems one exception to this rule. The singular *Acarus vegetans*, which is such a plague to some beetles, derives its nutriment from them by means of a filiform pedicle or umbilical cord attached to its anus; and what increases the singularity, sometimes several of these Acari form a kind of chain, of which the first only is fixed by its pedicle to the beetle, each of the remainder being similarly connected with the one that precedes it; so that the nutriment drawn from the beetle passes to the last through the bodies and umbilical cords of the individuals which are intermediate. (De Geer, vii. 123.)'

The instruments of nutrition, with which insects are furnished, are much more varied and complicated than those which have been observed in the other classes of animals; being, in every respect, analogous to their mode of feeding, and to the consistency of the substances which constitute their repasts. When in the *larva*-state, most of them consume a great quantity of food in proportion to their bulk: but some of the perfect insects, though provided with feeding organs, seem to make no use of them; and others subsist on very delicate and attenuated fare. Some are capable of sustaining protracted abstinence without suffering any apparent injury. Many of the stratagems to which they resort, in order to procure their food, as watching behind a leaf, spinning webs, &c. are familiar to our daily observation: but the details of weaving, as practised by different species of spiders, are worthy of the most minute contemplation, though they would occupy more space than we can assign to them in the present article.

'The Rev. R. Sheppard has often noticed in the fen-ditches of Norfolk a very large spider which actually forms a *raft* for the purpose of obtaining its prey with more facility. Keeping its station upon a ball of weeds about three inches in diameter, probably held together by slight silken cords, it is wafted along the surface of the water upon this floating island, which it quits the moment it sees a drowning insect, not, as you may conceive, for the sake of applying to it the process of the Humane Society, but of hastening its exit by a more speedy engine of destruction. The booty thus seized it devours at leisure upon its raft, under which it retires when alarmed by any danger.'

The wiles and exertions of the ant-lion, commemorated by Reaumur and Bonnet, are here justly quoted, as furnishing also a most striking instance of sagacity and perseverance.

In the fourteenth letter, the authors treat of the habitations of solitary, and in the fifteenth of those of social insects. As exemplifications of the former, they describe various cells and excavations, formed by some species of wild bees, particularly *Apis manicata*, and *A. violacea*. This last is one of the most remarkable of the *carpenter*-tribe.

'In the beginning of spring, after repeated and careful surveys, she fixes upon a piece of wood suitable for her purpose, and with her strong mandibles begins the process of boring. First proceeding obliquely downwards, she soon points her course in a direction parallel with the sides of the wood, and at length with unwearied exertion forms a cylindrical hole or tunnel not less than twelve or fifteen inches long and half an inch broad. Sometimes, where the diameter will admit of it, three or four of these pipes, nearly parallel with each other, are bored in the same piece. Herculean as this task, which is the labour of several days, appears, it is but a small part of what our industrious bee cheerfully undertakes. As yet she has completed but the shell of the destined habitation of her offspring; each of which, to the number of ten or twelve, will require a separate and distinct apartment. How, you will ask, is she to form these? With what materials can she construct the floors and ceilings? Why truly God "doth instruct her to discretion and doth teach her." In excavating her tunnel she has detached a large quantity of fibres, which lie on the ground like a heap of saw-dust. This material supplies all her wants. Having deposited an egg at the bottom of the cylinder along with the requisite store of pollen and honey, she next, at the height of about three-quarters of an inch, (which is the depth of each cell,) constructs of particles of the saw-dust glued together, and also to the sides of the tunnel, what may be called an annular stage or scaffolding. When this is sufficiently hardened, its interior edge affords support for a second ring of the same materials,

terials, and thus the ceiling is gradually formed of these concentric circles, till there remains only a small orifice in its centre, which is also closed with a circular mass of agglutinated particles of sawdust. When this partition, which serves as the ceiling of the first cell and the flooring of the second, is finished, it is about the thickness of a crown-piece, and exhibits the appearance of as many concentric circles as the animal has made pauses in her labour. One cell being finished, she proceeds to another, which she furnishes and completes in the same manner, and so on until she has divided her whole tunnel into ten or twelve apartments.'

Of the *Mason-bees*, the operations are scarcely less curious and surprizing. Others, which have been termed *upholsterers*, line their apartments with leaves of the corn-poppy, or with cuttings from those of the rose-tree. The *mason-wasp* perforates a cylindrical cavity, from two to three inches deep, in hard sand, and forms the excavated materials into little oblong pellets, which it arranges about the entrance of its hole, leaving numerous vacuities, as in filagree-work.

The various sorts of *galls* are formed in consequence of the insertion of eggs, by different species of *Cynips*, in the leaves of trees and plants; although the growth of these excrescences from such a cause is as mysterious as the production of pustules from the insertion of variolous matter in a child's arm.

Solitary insects construct habitations for their own use, which are as much diversified as those which they fabricate for the accommodation of their offspring; consisting of winding labyrinths in timber, in the parenchyma of the leaves of vegetables, &c., of cylindrical burrows, cases of various construction, rolls of leaves nicely adjusted by silken threads, &c. Of these abodes some are stationary, and some moveable, being carried about with their occupants: but all bespeak the greatest ingenuity and forethought. A subterraneous spider adapts to the entrance of its tubular mansion a sort of door, or valve, which it opens or shuts, as occasion may require; and another species makes its dwelling of a bubble of air in the water.

Of habitations formed by the united labours of many individuals, the web-like nests of several of the moth-tribes, and still more strikingly the structures of bees, wasps, ants, and termites, are obvious examples. The progress of those minute architects, in conducting their common labours, is well unfolded in the present letters. It is, however, time for us to close our analysis of their interesting contents, and to recommend the volume as the most valuable introduction to the study of Entomology that has appeared in this country. Few books, indeed, have more strongly tempted us to multiply our

extracts

extracts beyond the bounds of discretion. Though a more strictly methodical arrangement of the materials and a more animated style might contribute to a wider circulation of the work, it possesses in its present state much sterling and intrinsic merit; combining popular with scientific views of the subject, and reducing with judgment and discrimination the more extended communications of Reaumur, Bonnet, De Geer, Huber, and other eminent writers in the same department of zoology. In some instances, the statements are satisfactorily corroborated by the personal observation of one of the authors; and every where we discern the traces of an intimate and accurate acquaintance with the objects of their favourite pursuit.

The plates, which are executed with care and elegance by Mr. John Curtis, exhibit representations of eighteen species of insects. We are told that

> 'The contents of the two remaining volumes will be nearly as follows. Societies of Insects, including the History of Ants, Wasps, Bees, &c. Motions of Insects. Noises of Insects. Means of Defence from their Enemies. Luminous Insects. Hybernation of Insects. Instinct of Insects. Diseases of Insects. Definition of the term *Insect*. States of Insects, Egg; Larva; Pupa; Imago. Their general *exterior* Anatomy,—Head; Trunk; Abdomen. Their *interior* Anatomy and Physiology—Sensation; Respiration; Circulation; Digestion; Secretion; Generation, &c.—Senses of Insects. Orismology and Definitions of Terms. Characters of Insects; Class; Order; Family; Genus; Species; Variety. Investigation of Insects. Seasons in which they appear. Instruments and Mode of taking and preserving them,—with other particulars which it is not necessary here to enumerate.
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> 'The list of authors quoted in this work will be found in the last volume. It was intended to have given with this all the plates illustrative of the orders, but only three could be finished in time; the remainder will appear in the second volume, and those which relate to the anatomy and definitions in the third.'

We trust that the reception of these first fruits of their common labours will be sufficiently encouraging to stimulate the learned and ingenious authors to the completion of their design.

ART. VII. Mr. Fraser Tytler's *Considerations on the present Political State of India.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 33.]

THE first portion of our review of this work gave an ample display of the complicated wretchedness which constitutes the state of existence under the British Government in India;

and the inquiry into its cause must force itself on the attention even of those who are the most insensible to the feelings of their fellow-creatures. The short answer is easily given; because the experience of mankind, systematized and digested by political philosophy, makes this proposition indubitable, that every community which is habitually wretched, not by foreign oppression, is so rendered by vicious legislation. With little or no exception, the evils of society may all be traced to this deadly fountain; and with as little or no exception they may all be removed by correcting the vices of the government. Into the proof of this doctrine we cannot here enter: but those who are acquainted with the science of human nature need not a repetition of the evidence; and those who are *not* must, for the present, depend on our information that it is indeed abundant.

As the British government received the people of India in a state of wretchedness, it is not answerable for having brought them into that state: but the question is, whether every thing has been done which ought to have been done to deliver them out of it.

In the first place, we have here satisfactory evidence that the people of India are not, as yet, in the smallest degree relieved from their wretchedness; if, indeed, it be not on the other hand certain that their misery is increased. It follows that any thing which the English have done, in the way of legislation, has in fact produced no beneficial results; and the cause must be one of two; either, that they did not intend to produce any such effects, or that they were too ignorant of the science of legislation to apply the means which were requisite to the end. — From any such imputation as that of a want of design to ameliorate the condition of their subjects, we are most ready to absolve the East-India Company; since their conduct, in this respect, has been a contrast to that of most other governments. To improve the circumstances of their subjects, indeed, has been one of their principal objects; to which they have made great sacrifices, and of which they have on very few occasions (compared with other governments,) shewn a disposition to lose sight on account of any other purpose whatsoever. Assuredly, however, they have been ill advised with respect to the means; and the associations, by which they have been misguided, are those of a blind, mechanical predilection for the political arrangements of their own country, resembling the predilection of a child for the nurse to whom he has been habituated. They imagined that nothing would be so admirable, not for the people of India alone, but for all the people in the world, as to make them a present of

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the British machinery for the business of government; as far at least as this could be done with the reservation to themselves of all the powers by means of which that system is maintained; — and they were not able, it seems, to reflect that this one circumstance, not to speak of others, made such a difference as to constitute two cases, of a dissimilar and in many respects an opposite nature.

In England, a considerable portion of the powers, by which the machinery of government is actuated, is held and employed by the people, through the two organs of a representative assembly and the freedom of the press. Now, although the state of both these organs, as up to the present hour we have been permitted to enjoy them, is exceedingly mutilated and imperfect, yet to so wonderful a degree is the influence of the people salutary in the affairs of government, that it supplies what is defective and counteracts what is mischievous in the British institutions: thus making a system of machinery, which in itself is far from being unobjectionable, produce more of the effects of good government than ever were experienced in any country in which this influence of the people was not more powerfully felt. It is clear, then, that the mistake of the East-India-Company consisted in supposing that such a process as that by which the business of government is conducted in England, would have the same effects in India when released from the salutary checks just mentioned. Experience has proved that which, without waiting for the painful lessons of this bitter monitress, proper knowlege and understanding would have enabled the legislators for India to foresee; viz. that this system would, in India, be totally inadequate to accomplish the objects of good government; and that, as far as it changed any thing, it would only remove one set of evils to introduce another, for which time had provided no palliatives, and from which the people might very possibly suffer more than from those that had been abolished.

According to Mr. Fraser Tytler, the grand sources, from which the effects of bad government in India so copiously flow, are the same to which the misery of nations is every where chiefly to be ascribed; first, an oppressive system of taxation; and, secondly, a defective administration of justice. Nothing more is wanting to render a country superlatively wretched: while, on the other hand, nothing is required to render them happy but the removal of these evils. These two are the points to which it is necessary for the legislators of India to attend; and in this very limited number of objects they may see their duties comprized. The principal part of the present highly instructive work, for which we are indebted to the intelligence, and—that rare endowment—the *public virtue*, of Mr. Tytler, is employed on the two subjects just described.

The revenue of India is, and always has been, derived almost wholly from the land. Under the Mogul-government, besides other revenue-officers, was a man who in general had the charge of a district; whose duty it was to collect the tax from the immediate cultivators, and to pay it (reserving a regulated portion for his own reward) into the treasury of the sovereign. Consistently with the rudeness and carelessness of Oriental rule, it was expected of this manager to pay annually a sum not less than that which had usually been received; and, while this duty was performed, little was required or known about the circumstances of the district. As the power of collecting the taxes in India generally combined the greatest portion of all the powers of government,—the use of a military force, the business of police, and the business of judicature,—these managers became a sort of kings in their several districts; they maintained fortresses; and, when the energy of the higher government relaxed, and the resources of their province allowed, they were always disposed to throw off their allegiance, and very frequently were successful. It will easily be supposed that, under the antient government, these managers were the principal source of the oppression of their people: that, whatever they paid or did not pay to their sovereign-lord, they seldom omitted to grasp from the people the last farthing which it was possible for them to extort; and that they placed the population in the habitual state of afflictive, abject, corrupting indigence.

From this oppression of the taxing system, and from the want of a tolerable administration of justice, arose almost the whole of the misery which existed under the rude and vicious sway of the native powers. Yet we are informed by the author of the volumes before us, and we receive the same information from the reports of the agents of the government themselves, as transmitted to us through the medium of parliament, that to these same managers, commonly known by the name of Zemindars, the English Company have consigned an assemblage of powers, and have surrounded them with circumstances, which give them equally the means, and to a much greater degree than ever the motives, to fleece the people, and reduce them to the lowest and most destructive condition of poverty. To exhibit these powers and motives in detail, and to shew that they must produce all the deplorable effects which are ascribed to them, would require a space very different from that to which the nature of this article restricts us. For this important information, we must refer to the instructive pages of Mr. Tytler at large; and to the still more authoritative documents which are printed in the Appendix to the Fifth Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons, which inquired into Indian affairs in the year 1810. At present, we must content ourselves with exhibiting a specimen of the evidence of merely the fact: though to this effect, in truth, we have already furnished materials which might with some reason be regarded as decisive. We have given satisfactory proof that the wretchedness of the people from poverty is such that it cannot be exceeded, without their destruction and the rapid desolation of the country; and Mr. Tytler,—than whom a better witness, whether we regard his opportunities of knowlege, his virtue, or his interests, it is impossible to obtain,—we have heard declaring confidently, and as a thing which it would be the height of folly or of impudence to deny, that the powers with which the zemindars are intrusted, and the motives with which their situation, created by government, acts on them, constitute the first of the deplorable sources from which the miseries of the people of India are derived.

'That distinguished statesman,' says the author, 'who made the arrangement of the perpetual settlement which divided the country into large estates, and gave the zemindars a perpetual interest in them, expected that they would study the improvement of their lands, and depend on this for the acquisition of riches, though at a distant period. This notion was purely European. The disposition of the Bengalee is rapacious to a degree that can hardly be conceived; and the zemindars have, with one consent, adopted the easier method of acquiring wealth by subdividing their lands, and letting them out in farms, at short leases, to the highest bidder. It is evident that, by this system, the grand spring of all agricultural improvement is removed, viz. the enjoyment, on the part of the cultivator, of a long continued interest in the land.'

Speaking of the fact that the whole population, with an exception astonishingly small, are excluded from all possession or property, he says, 'the effect appears to me to be chiefly caused by the complete change which our government has made in the condition of the ryots, or actual cultivators of the soil; I mean, by throwing the landed property into the hands of the zemindars.'—'This is a system which, conducted as it now is in India, calls loudly for redress; threatening, in its consequences, not the partial loss and impoverishment of some parts of the land, but the general ruin of the country.' At page 394., vol. i., he observes, 'The power of the zemindars must, by every possible means, be diminished:' at page 398., 'We have thrown the landed property almost entirely into the hands of a set of rapacious harpies;' and in the next page, 'The oppression of the zemindars has already, in a great measure, and, at a period not far distant, will render desperate, in proportion to their indigence, the peasantry and manufacturers.'—The commissioners, who were appointed to make the arrangements for the government of the ceded provinces in 1808, chose to resign their situations, rather than be the instruments of a system of taxation of which they beheld the detestable effects, but which they were given to understand it was the determination of the government to establish.

We come now to the administration of justice. Considerable pains have been taken by the English for the purpose of introducing improvement into this grand department. No want of inclination has been shewn on the part of the Company; nor on that of their principal managers on the spot. Every thing has been changed. No superstitious dread of innovation has appeared under the Indian climate. Yet the set of expedients of which the legislators for India have made choice are so bad, that, for the whole population, (not so much as one in a thousand excepted,) the administration of justice, to any but a bad purpose, cannot be said even to exist:—it exists for their oppression, not for their security.

The first and indispensable requisite to a good administration of justice,—the accurate determination of what are the laws by which the people are to be governed, and a provision that the people shall as accurately know them,—has not been performed. They have no code, either civil or criminal:—to a great extent of the field of law, no definite law exists;—nothing but certain vague conceptions, which every man who is intrusted with the administration of law is left to form at his pleasure, and does so form, sometimes in one way and sometimes in another.

A second indisputable requisite, surely, is that judicature should be performed. Yet the number of judges afforded by the English government is not sufficient to execute the business; and we are told that it would be too expensive to appoint more. Causes, therefore, coming in faster than they can be decided, have accumulated; and the decision is thus so enormously delayed that the consequences are in many respects as bad as if it had been altogether denied, and are often much worse.

Another requisite, which common reason insists on being connected with the administration of justice, is that its benefits should be placed within reach of all. Is this the case in India? The administration of justice, on the contrary, is so loaded with the mischief of expence, by taxes to government and fees to the lawyers, that the great body of the people are actually outlawed; and, for the larger part of the injuries to which they are liable, they are absolutely placed without the means of redress.

Another essential requisite is, since the administration of justice is intended for the great body of the people, whose understandings are easily bewildered by any thing which is complicated and obscure, that it should be accomplished in the way that is most simple and perspicuous, as far as, by any possibility, simple and perspicuous forms can be reconciled with efficiency. If it be, as it most assuredly is, the fact that no forms can be efficient to the goodness of an administration of justice which are *not* thus plain and precise, it then follows undeniably that nothing is more indispensable than simplicity of forms to this the most important of all the duties of government. Yet so prodigious is the mistake which English legislators have committed in framing a scheme of judicial procedure for the people of India, who had been accustomed to very simple though very ill-administered forms, that they have imposed on them the system of English lawyers; loaded with complexity and obscurity; and stuffed with useless parts that are adverse to the ends of justice, and favourable only to the extraction of money from the pockets of suitors, in order to put fees into the pockets of those for whose assistance they apply.

From all these causes, which all the world must allow to be sufficient, — and from various others, which it is not within our compass to represent, — it cannot but arise that the administration of justice in India is too imperfectly performed to admit of any happiness or virtue among the people, or any prosperity in the country. A large proportion of the work of Mr. Tytler is employed to adduce the proofs which sad experience affords of these important truths; and a very scanty specimen of them is all that we can afford to exhibit:

> 'Our civil courts' (says he, vol. ii. p. 326.) 'are, from a too great attention to form and details, — from the small number of judicial servants, — from the wide extent of jurisdiction, — and the delay in procuring evidence, — very inadequate to afford redress to our numerous subjects. The remedies are to be found in more summary justice, — in the institution of travelling courts, held by the register, or assistants, in the villages, — and in the appointment of commissioners elected by the ryots.'

That the system, including law and police, which is destined for the repression of crime, is totally inadequate to its ends, is on the part of government itself the object of loud lamentation.

We scarcely know whether bribery in the courts of justice be worse than a complicated machinery for the manufacture of chicance, and of fees: but we are sure that both together must be the very consummation of badness; and it is established that both exist in the highest degree in the administration of justice in India. It is asserted, not once or twice, but many times, by Mr. F. Tytler, that, from the want of knowlege among the young Englishmen who are appointed to preside over the courts of law, respecting the character and circumstances of the people; from their apathy, and love of ease; and from their being most frequently in bondage, on account of debt, to some of the natives, who hence thrust themselves into the principal offices about them, and must not be challenged in their malversations; — it happens that the administration of justice is not in fact in the hands of the Englishmen who appear to have the authority, but almost always in the hands, entirely and completely, of the native officers of the courts, who, to a man, are venal, and most frequently the greatest villains in the district.

'In all countries,' (says the author,) 'justice, although the natural right of the subject, is a very dear commodity. But, in Bengal, its price exceeds in most instances its value. The poor Bengalee will rather give up his little paternal property, than prosecute his cause in our civil courts; he will rather suffer the injury, if his house is robbed, than undergo the delay and misery of a criminal prosecution. Half, and more than half the injuries committed are thus concealed. The corruption of the native aumilah, or officer of our courts, has become notorious; and the European character suffers in the eyes of the natives, if not from the suspicion which it is the interest of the aumilah to create, viz. of our partaking of their gains, yet, at least, from our extreme supiness and apathy, which prevents our taking any measures for the suppression of an evil so destructive to all justice. The following passage, translated literally, from the Travels of Aka Mahommed, a Persian of considerable rank, and respectability, and a clever man, — as it describes most exactly the state of almost every court of justice in India, — ought surely to awaken us to a sense of our duty. Talking of the English, he says, "And although these persons do not, themselves, take bribes, — and to the utmost of their power administer justice impartially, — yet, from their neglect and carelessness, the poor subject must endure every kind of tyranny and oppression, which the power of the aumillah, viz. the nazirs, darogas, and others, inflict on them. And, considering the wisdom and ability of these persons, it is very wonderful that they do not reflect and consider, how it is possible, that their dewans, mooftees, nazirs, cutwals, darogas, thannadars, moonshees, moota-suddees, and others, who serve in the judicial line, while their allowances are only sufficient for their maintenance, can yet assume such rank and splendour: and, notwithstanding their living in this style, how they have become possessed of great and extensive landed property. If they take no bribes, whence comes all this!!!"'

Various subordinate topics remain, on which the author communicates important information; such as the education of the young servants of the Company, the circumstances into which they naturally fall, and the character which they generally acquire: but on these we have not left ourselves room to present any statements, or to offer any reflections. On subjects of political economy alone, the reader has occasion to be warned against Mr. Fraser Tytler as a guide; and on these important matters he is so superficially informed, that nearly all the opinions which he produces are decidedly erroneous.

ART. VIII. *The History of the Church of Scotland*, from the Establishment of the Reformation to the Revolution: illustrating a most interesting Period of the Political History of Britain. By George Cook, D.D., Minister of Laurencekirk. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 16s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

THOSE of our readers who are interested in ecclesiastical history, or even in general history, of which the former constitutes so important a branch, cannot wholly have forgotten a recent work by Dr. Cook, on the Reformation in Scotland, and will scarcely require us to direct them to the reviews of it which we gave in our Numbers for November and December 1814. They will, however, be glad to learn that, having in that publication supplied an account of the mighty change which took place in the ecclesiastical affairs of Scotland in the 16th century, and of the various steps by which the part of the hierarchy of Rome situated in that country became a Protestant national church, the learned Doctor undertakes, in the volumes before us, to furnish a history of the new community from its first origin to its final establishment, as well as of the several forms of polity which it successively underwent, during the same period. With satisfaction we observe that his present labours are recommended by the same indefatigable research, the same perfect impartiality, the same liberal notions, and the same attachment to our constitutional liberties, civil and religious, that distinguished the production of which we have already spoken. He seems, as before, to have concerned himself principally about the *matter* of his history; yet we think that, if he had paid more attention to his style, the pains would not have been thrown away on works of such substantial merit.

We must extract a few paragraphs from Dr. Cook's preface, in order to shew what materials he has used in the formation of this literary structure:

'The sources from which information was to be derived were most abundant. In writing the History of the Reformation in Scotland, he found the case very different. The first actors in that splendid revolution were too much occupied, and too much exposed to danger, to devote a large portion of their time to record the transactions in which they were engaged; and, with the exception of a small manuscript-volume of letters by Knox, and several of his letters preserved by Calderwood, almost all of which relate much more to his private life than to public occurrences, the contemporary works from which the whole essential facts with respect to the origin of the Scotish Reformation may be obtained, are his printed history, the histories of Buchanan and Leslie, and the state-papers of that era, numbers of which have been preserved. There are, indeed, several manuscripts relating to the subject; but as these were composed by men who lived in a subsequent age, they cannot, however valuable, be considered as of equal authority with productions upon which they avowedly rest, and to which their writers constantly refer.

'But after the Reformers had succeeded in gaining the ascendancy, circumstances materially changed. The different parties, eager to disseminate their sentiments, had recourse to the press, and intelligent individuals recorded, for their own satisfaction, or with a view to that of posterity, the events which they witnessed. Hence, in composing this work, the author's chief difficulty has been, not to discover documents, but to select them; and it is proper to mention this, that it may not be imagined that he was ignorant of books which he has not quoted, or be insinuated that, had he consulted them, the accuracy of his narration would have been increased.

'He has carefully examined the works of the leading men attached to the different parties contending for victory. His references accordingly are numerous, and they are so, not certainly from his wishing to make a vain display of labour and of erudition, but because, where hopes and passions are powerfully excited, it is necessary for ascertaining the truth, to attend to the aspect under which the same facts had, by those of opposite principles, been viewed and represented.

'In addition to the printed volumes, the pamphlets and the state-papers, which he has enumerated as he proceeds, he had access to a great variety of manuscripts, the chief of which were the Buik of the Universal Kirk, Calderwood's large History, Rowe's History of the Kirke, the Life of James Melville, a Diary by Robert Trail, one of the Covenanters, and Wodrow's extensive collection, containing a vast number of documents of the highest value, and for the preservation of which we are indebted to the astonishing industry and the sound judgment of that accurate and most respectable historian.

'The author cannot deny himself the satisfaction of expressing his deep sense of the attention shewn to him by the learned members of the University of Glasgow, who, with a liberality worthy of the patrons of literary exertion, gave to him the free use of Wodrow's manuscripts; and he begs, in a particular manner, to acknowledge the kindness of Principal Taylor, and of Professor Muirhead, who spared no trouble in selecting and transmitting the volumes which he solicited.'

It is almost impossible to say under what denomination the Protestant Church of Scotland should rank, as it was first established: but it seems to have been a church-government *per se*, founded on the necessities and circumstances of the case, and in which expediency was principally regarded. We must admit that its polity was very imperfect: but, in all probability, much was designedly left for future arrangement, and much that was then settled was not meant to be final. That a decided leaning was given in it to the Geneva platform is proved by facts; and the known sentiments of its founder, his close connection with Calvin and Beza, and his intercourse with the Reformers abroad, will not permit us to doubt it. The imitation, however, was by no means servile; deviations were introduced; and among others the order of superintendents, a sort of ministers with higher powers, was a considerable variation, which seems to have been suggested by the difference of locality. This regulation was a clear departure from the model, and was either proposed by Knox or met with his concurrence. By the agreement of Leith which took place a few years later, the constitution of the Scotish reformed church became episcopalian; and, though Knox objected to some of the transactions that were effected in virtue of this arrangement, his acquiescence in the principle is clearly shewn by the present candid and enlightened historian: so that we here contemplate, on his authority, supported by the whole tenor of history, the great Scotish Reformer setting up a church that is not presbyterian, concurring in a change of its structure by which it becomes episcopalian, and exercising his ministry and dying in the communion of a church so constituted. That Knox, like other learned men, had predilections on the subject of church-government, is not to be denied; and that they were in favour of a presbyterian regimen cannot be dissembled: but we should contradict the truth of history, do this eminent man injustice, and declare him to have been unequal to the great charge which he sustained, (that of the reformer of his nation,) if we ascribed to him narrow and illiberal notions on this subject. The obloquy is refuted by his long services to the church of England, by the sentiments which he is known to have entertained of that church, and by his co-operating in the agreement of Leith. When he died, he left the Reformation in Scotland under no shackles as to forms, but with full liberty to adopt such polity as future circumstances might shew to be most expedient. The reformed churches of South and of North Britain, widely varying as were their origin, structure, and genius, did not in their early days differ on the *jus divinum* of orders, which in each church-government seems to have been a matter determined on grounds of expediency. The rigidity of this notion was not introduced till a later period, and amid the rage of controversy.

In order to place ecclesiastical matters in a clear light, the historian is obliged to enter very fully into political affairs. If the picture of the country, under the several regents who ruled during the minority of James, be very dismal, we have reason to believe that it is not less faithful. In England, the Reformation had been fostered by the monarchs, while in Scotland it had made its way in their absence. How much did it owe to the premature death of James V., and the minority of Mary! Had she continued to hold the reins of government after her arrival in Scotland, its fate would have been very precarious: while, by her delinquencies, and by putting herself in the hands of Elizabeth, she placed the Reformation out of all danger; or in the words of the present historian, 'Her captivity, in fact, put an end to all formidable opposition to the Protestant church in Scotland. No serious attempt was after this made to overthrow it; and the history which in this work will be detailed, is the history, not of the Reformation contending for existence, but of the various forms which it assumed, and of the effects which the struggles connected with different schemes of ecclesiastical polity produced upon the political, the moral, the religious, and the intellectual condition of Scotland.'

A favourable representation is here given of the Earl of Murray, the first of the above-mentioned regents. Dr. Cook thinks that he would have fulfilled the promises made respecting the patrimony of the church, had it been in his power, but that his authority, depending on a disputed title, was never sufficiently established to enable him to attempt a matter involved in so much difficulty. Great praise is bestowed by Dr. C. on the clergy for the warm and zealous support which they gave to him, although he was obliged to disappoint their expectations. They are said to have overlooked themselves, and to have regarded only the general cause; perceiving that 'the success of any party by which Murray was resisted would bring with it, if not the restoration of popery, that state of painful [illegible] which, [illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible] it was to be [illegible], the form of government, and the support to be given to it by the cro left, in a great degree, open for future discussion, ren probable that some changes in all these respects woul introduced.

This unsettled condition of the church was attended wi inconveniences to the clergy. Their stipends were not paid; constant disputes arose between them and the pers under the former ecclesiastical establishment, had been into benefices; the funds for paying the ministers were not with sufficient precision defined; and it was not determined, whether, like the higher orders of the Popish clergy, they were to be recognized as one of the estates of the kingdom. But this situation of their affairs, with all the disadvantages which attended it, was perhaps, upon the whole, most favourable to the existence of that spirit of freedom, and of that manly independence, which had, from the first struggles of the Congregation, guided the conduct of the Reformers in Scotland. Had their interest, immediately after their faith was espoused by the nation, been fully identified with the government, — had ample revenues been allotted to their teachers, — and had the state been pledged to defend their possessions and their privileges, it might have happened, that the natural love of security and of influence would have extinguished patriotism, and disposed many of them invariably to support the schemes and the measures of the sovereign, or of those who exercised his authority. Hence would have resulted that wild and absurd principle of passive obedience, and that capricious and tyrannical determination to regulate, by one standard, the belief of all the members of the community, which, even at the period of Murray's death, had begun to be avowed in England.'

The troubles of the kingdom at length reached such a height, that

'No steps were taken by parliament to satisfy the clergy; but, eagerly intent upon their own interest, the members of the estates passed an act, striking a fatal blow at the pretensions of the church, and establishing, with respect to it, the most dangerous precedent. Although the nobles, and other distinguished men in the kingdom, had, during the troubles connected with the introduction of the Reformation, got into their possession much of the property which the piety of their ancestors had consecrated to the purposes of religion, the acquisition was considered merely as the consequence of power, and as conferring no legal right. But the holders of this property determined to avail themselves of the influence which they possessed, and to wrest finally from the church this large part of her ancient endowment. At their suggestion, accordingly, it was enacted, that the lands and heritable possessions which many of the lieges held by feu, or any other way, of priors and superiors of convents, should henceforth be held of the crown, the duties being paid to the Sovereign. This statute was founded upon the plea that since the Reformation most of the superiors had died, and that, as successors were not to be appointed, no title could be given, except by a new provision of the legislature, to the occupiers of the lands specified in the act.'

This act, it is natural to suppose, 'could not fail to agitate and alarm the clergy. It converted into secular property that which had been confessedly ecclesiastical, and it plainly shewed, that, upon similar ground, the whole patrimony of the church might be immutably conveyed to the laity.' Yet the ministers, though thus most inadequately served, did not cease to act a most meritorious part.

'It was almost solely by their efforts, or by their influence, that the government of James had been established. Had they not given a new direction to popular opinion, Scotland would have been at this period buried in the darkness of superstition, and would have passively worn the fetters with which it had been for ages shackled. The esteem in which they had been held by the great body of the people was not decreased,—they were still revered; and had they been disposed to thwart those who were vested with power, they might have involved them in much perplexity, or driven them from the situations which they had acquired. It certainly evinces the patriotism of the clergy, that, under severe privations, they steadily adhered to their loyalty; that, while they complained of injury, they strengthened the administration of those by whom they were injured, convinced that the happiness of the nation and the restoration of tranquillity would thus be most effectually promoted: and that they never for a moment listened to the solicitations of the lords who had associated in defence of the Queen, although these lords professed the most fervent zeal for the Protestant faith, and would, from their peculiar circumstances, have granted any concessions which would have induced the ministers to rank under the standard of Mary.'

The inference which the author draws from all this statement is, we think, irresistible:

'It may from this be fairly concluded, that the opposition which they made during the reign of that Princess, did not proceed from motives of interest or of ambition, or from principles inimical to the existence of monarchy; but, as they often declared, from the firm persuasion that the religion which they had suffered so much to establish was in danger, and that it was necessary to place on the throne a monarch of the reformed faith, in order to secure the civil and religious liberty of Scotland.'

Nothing can more strongly shew the unsettled state of the polity of the Scotish reformed church at this time, than the following account of events which happened in the year 1571, during the regency of the Earl of Mar:

'From a very early period in the history of Scotland, the clerical order had formed one of the estates in Parliament. The bishops and other dignified clergy were regularly summoned to that high Assembly, and their consent was necessary to give stability and force to the laws and constitutions of the kingdom. At the Reformation it was esteemed dangerous to make any great innovation upon the political constitution then existing; and although the Roman Catholic bishops were prohibited from teaching, and were, in fact, deprived of the right to exercise their clerical functions, they were permitted to retain the privilege of sitting in Parliament, and many of them regularly attended its deliberations.

In progress of time several of them died, and as there was no possibility of continuing the succession, the sees remained permanently vacant, and there was a near prospect of the total extinction of the spiritual branch of the legislature. The persons who successively administered the government of James, contemplated with much anxiety and alarm an event which might be attended with consequences fatal to the throne of their sovereign; they dreaded that if, under the reign of a minor, one of the estates ceased to exist, their proceedings might be afterwards declared to be illegal; and the whole of those interesting regulations by which the liberty and the religion of the great mass of the people were intended to be secured, might be set aside.

' To guard against this, the Parliament which had lately assembled at Stirling took a very strong, and to the church a very obnoxious step. They called upon certain of the Protestant clergy to vote as the successors of the deceased prelates, and appointed nominal bishops to the vacant sees, who were to attend the meetings of the estates. As this measure was adopted, not only without the concurrence of the church, but in express opposition to it, much dissatisfaction was excited. It was considered as a virtual annihilation of the powers of the clergy.'—' The measure indeed was so plainly subversive of ecclesiastical right, that a determination to persist in it might have renewed the calamities of a religious war, and might have led the ministers to desert the cause of the reigning sovereign; and therefore the Regent, with his council, saw the propriety or necessity of making such arrangements as would complete the constitution of Parliament, without infringing upon the privileges belonging to an order of men, of whose talents he was fully convinced, and whom it was so manifestly dangerous to drive to despair.'

Although the last expedient was abandoned, all parties were satisfied that the good of the church and of the state required that some form of polity should be given to the Protestant establishment. Accordingly, a convention for this very purpose was held at Leith in the next year, which named out of their own body persons who should meet deputies appointed by the Regent; and by this united assemblage the following regulations were approved:

' " It is thought good, in consideration of the present state, 1. That the names and titles of the archbishops and bishops be not altered, or the bounds of the dioceses confounded, but that they continue, in time coming, as they did before the reformation of religion, at least till the King's Majesty's majority, or consent of parliament. 2. That the archbishoprics and bishoprics vacant should be conferred on men endowed, as far as may be, with the qualities specified in the examples of Paul to Timothy and Titus. 3. That to all archbishoprics and bishoprics that should become vacant qualified persons should be presented within a year and a day after the vacancy took place, and those nominated to be thirty years of age at the least. 4. That the spiritual jurisdiction should be exercised by the bishops in their dioceses. 5. That abbots, priors, and inferior prelates, presented to benefices, should be tried as to their qualification and their aptness to give voice in parliament by the bishop or superintendent of the bounds, and upon their collation should be admitted to the benefice, but not otherwise. 6. That the elections of persons presented to bishoprics should be made by the chapters of the cathedral churches; and because the chapters of divers churches were possessed by men provided before his Majesty's coronation, who bore no office in the church, that a particular nomination of ministers should be made in every diocese, to supply their rooms until the benefice should fall void. 7. That all benefices with cure under prelacies should be conferred on actual ministers, and on no others. 8. That ministers should receive ordination from the bishop of the diocese, and, where no bishop was as yet placed, from the superintendent of the bounds. 9. That the bishops and superintendents, at the ordination of ministers, should exact of them an oath for acknowledging his Majesty's authority, and for obedience to their ordinary in all things."

'In addition to these regulations there were several others of much importance, ascertaining the nature and extent of the powers with which the bishops were to be invested. It was agreed that all archbishops, and bishops, hereafter to be admitted, should exercise no farther jurisdiction in spiritual function than the superintendents exercised; that they were to be subject to the church in spiritual matters, as to the king in those that were temporal; and that they should consult some of the most learned of the chapter, not fewer than six, with regard to the admission of such as were to have function in the church.

'A number of regulations were also proposed for the maintenance of the clergy, and for ascertaining the principles of those admitted to the ministry.'—'With respect to residence, so obviously implied in the institution of a ministry, and so essential for accomplishing the great purposes of moral and religious instruction, it was resolved, that no one engaged in the pastoral office should be absent from his benefice above forty days in the year, without permission from the King, or unless he had some lawful impediment. That the advantages resulting from such continued instruction might not be limited to particular districts, it was agreed that qualified ministers should be settled throughout the kingdom, and that they should be assisted by readers, who, having been approved by the bishop or superintendent, were to be authorised to dispense the sacrament of baptism and to marry. It was most wisely determined that none should be admitted to a plurality of benefices with cure; and that the political and religious sentiments of the ministers might be placed beyond a doubt, all who were presented to livings were to be required, in presence of the bishop or superintendent, to subscribe the articles of religion, or the confession of faith and doctrines of the sacraments contained in the acts of the first parliament of James, and to swear that they acknowledged the King's authority. These articles, after they had been approved by the deputation from the church and the government, were submitted to the Regent, who, in name of his Sovereign, gave to them his approbation.'—

'The proceedings of the convention at Leith were, as had been determined, reported to the Assembly, which, in a few weeks after, met at St. Andrew's; but it does not appear that any discussion respecting them then took place, it probably being considered as better to defer this till the next Assembly, which was to meet at Perth in the month of August.'—

'In the Assembly at Perth, the subject was resumed, and all the members were enjoined to consider the heads of the agreement at Leith, and to point out what they approved, and what they condemned. To the leading parts of the scheme, no objection seems to have been stated; but many apprehended that several of the titles introduced bore too close a resemblance to the corrupt form which the hierarchy in the church of Rome had assumed. This was urged in a protestation by those brethren to whom the revisal of the scheme had been committed; and to prevent all apprehensions, and all the evils which might result from associating the new polity with the superstitious usages of popery, the whole Assembly, including those who had conducted the conferences at Leith, solemnly declared, that, by using the titles, to which reference had been made, they did not intend to give any countenance to popery or superstition, but that they wished these titles to be changed. This, however, was not done, it being probably soon found that there was no occasion for the dread which had at first been excited. The Assembly may thus be considered as having confirmed episcopacy; but the way was kept open for additional, or even total changes, the members formally protesting that the articles agreed upon were received only "till farther and more perfect order might be obtained at the hands of the King's Majesty's Regent, and the nobility."

'The infirmities which now pressed upon Knox prevented him from attending the meeting of the Assembly, and from taking that active part in the whole of this arrangement, which, in his better days, would have been allotted to him. He, was, however, deeply interested by the projected changes in that form which he had devised and recommended, and he corresponded upon the subject with the foreign divines, whose opinions he reverenced, and from whom his own sentiments, as to the polity of the church, had in a considerable degree received their direction. A letter which Beza, one of the ablest divines at Geneva, wrote to him, in all likelihood with reference to the agreement at Leith, has been preserved, in which, after expressing his high opinion of the doctrine and discipline of the church of Scotland, he reminds Knox, that the papal supremacy had arisen out of episcopacy, and strenuously urges him never to give way to its re-admission, however specious might be the arguments by which such a revolution was supported.'

Yet we are told that Knox sent articles to this Assembly, in which 'he assented to the change of polity, for he advised the Assembly to petition the Regent that all vacant bishoprics might be filled with qualified persons, within a year after the vacancy had taken place, according, he adds, to the order taken at Leith; and he speaks of bishops lawfully elected, in conformity to that order. In the answer returned to him, the assembly informed him that they found his articles both reasonable and godly.' This episcopal polity is asserted by the present author 'to have been admirably calculated for securing an useful and efficient clergy. It established an excellent system of controul; it enforced upon ministers the regular discharge of their pastoral duties; it assigned a peculiar province to all holding benefices, — allotted a moderate provision for their support and comfort, — whilst it subjected the highest dignitaries of the church to restraints which guarded against the indolence or the profligacy that had disgraced the bishops under the Popish establishment.'

Dr. Cook elsewhere says that such would in all probability have continued to be the constitution of the church of Scotland, but for the avarice of the Earl of Morton, and his premature demission of the office of regent.

The part which Knox took in the arrangements of Leith was among the last of his public acts, and his resplendent life was now drawing to its close. As long as Scotland shall set value on its reformed church, so long will it hold in veneration the name of this eminent man: — indeed, to no one other man was any country so much indebted for its reformation. We highly applaud, therefore, the late attempts of Scotish writers to vindicate his character from obloquy; since, though nothing new can be said of him, misrepresentation may be corrected, exaggeration reduced, and a fair estimate be formed. When we consider to what caprices of Henry VIII. our Cranmer was obliged to submit, how tightly he held the rein, how he persecuted under Edward, and what a sorry figure he made under Mary, we must admit that the blunt, intrepid, and consistent Knox appears in much the fairest light. If not marked by profound erudition, he was not devoid of good learning; and he possessed accomplishments that might make many blush who now sneer at the very mention of his name. With pleasure we record the tribute that is here paid to him, in addition to the particulars which we extracted from Dr. Cook's former publication:

> 'His religious principles seem to have at all times influenced his actions; he believed in the religion which he delighted to illustrate and to enforce; and he derived from it that comfort and that serenity, which gladdened him on the brink of the grave. His

understanding was sound and comprehensive. With wonderful acuteness, he traced the probable issue of the various struggles which he witnessed; and pronouncing the opinions which his sagacity dictated, with the bold tone which he was accustomed to assume, he was sometimes believed to have supernaturally penetrated into futurity; and he occasionally did not resist the suggestion of his own mind, that he was favoured with communications from heaven.

'But the most marked feature of his character was an intrepidity which no apprehension of danger, no combination of obstacles, or no feelings of tenderness, even to those whom he loved, could for a moment shake; and it was this which peculiarly qualified him for executing the momentous work which he had the happiness to accomplish. The Earl of Morton, when he stood over his grave, paid a deserved tribute to his memory, when he said, "There lies one who, during life, never feared the face of man."

'The decided part, however, which he acted, and the manner in which he was compelled to assert the cause of civil and religious freedom, filled with horror all who were attached to the faith of Rome, or who wished to perpetuate the despotism which he was eager to remove; and they have branded him as a fomenter of sedition, and as a turbulent incendiary who brought misery on his country. Yet it should not be forgotten, that, during his last years, he inculcated submission to the sovereign whom parliament had placed on the throne; that he shewed the most determined antipathy to anarchy and insubordination; and that he would have probably shrunk from many of the wild and dangerous maxims which, at a succeeding period, became prevalent in Scotland, but which, with unpardonable ignorance, have not unfrequently been represented as the principles which he taught. The shades which have been cast over his reputation, it may be hoped, will yet be dissipated; and while his impetuosity, his warmth of temper, and his occasional coarseness of invective, are admitted and deplored, he will be venerated as having often stood alone in the noble attempt to save, and to enlighten his country.'

Be it remembered that Scotland owes its Reformation to Knox, but not the particular denomination of its church; while our zealots would do well also to recollect, that he laboured arduously and long in advancing the Reformation of England.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. IX. *The Mosiad,* or Israel delivered; a Sacred Poem, in Six Canticles, with Notes, &c. Written by Charles Smith. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Nicol and Son. 1815.

THIS work is dedicated 'to the great and respectable body of Dissenters in England,' and is ornamented with a portrait of the author painted by himself. In speaking of the poetical part of his performance, it is unnecessary for us to enter into any examination of the fitness of sacred subjects for the embellishments of poetry, or of the causes that so often operate to impede their success. We have frequently stated our sentiments on this subject; and such an inquiry generally argues a certain degree of merit, in a production, which makes us anxious to know why it is not still better: — but no such curiosity is raised in the present instance. We have never seen any thing so little calculated to inspire the sentiments which, no doubt, the author had in view; and the goodness of his intention must console him for its failure. We know, indeed, of one performance that bears some resemblance to the present, and that is the manuscript-translation of the Bible into verse by Zachary Boyd, which now sleeps on the shelves of the library of the Glasgow-University.

'The emancipation of Israel from Egyptian bondage' (says Mr. Smith in his preface) 'by divine aid, through the ministry of Moses, always appeared to the author an appropriate subject for Epic Poetry; but it was not until he had been several years a captive in France that he thought of attempting it. Sensible of his inadequacy to the undertaking, he hesitated some time, till in selecting the necessary passages, he happened to light upon the xviith chapter and 14th verse of Exodus, which seemed, if not a command, at least an encouragement to proceed: this he accordingly did, and the following pages are the result of his endeavours to celebrate the merits of the first of *Patriots* and *Legislators*.'

The whimsical Lord Herbert of Cherbury was determined to print his deistical memoirs by much the same interpretation of an imaginary sign from heaven. Let no man deceive his reason by such fallacious arguments. — The bill of fare for the first canticle is as follows:

'*Introduction.* — Choice of the subject; viz. the history and praise of Moses; who, by divine command and assistance, delivers the Israelites from the oppression of Pharaoh and the Egyptians, and brings them to Canaan, their original country, promised to the posterity of Abraham. — The Poem begins with the morning after their escape from Egypt, encamped at Migdol. — A synod of the Elders is called to Moses' tent. — The consultation interrupted by the arrival of a herald, sent by Pharaoh to Moses, who demands the purpose of his coming; the herald explains his mission, and offers an amnesty, on condition of their submission and return to Egypt. — These terms rejected by Moses, who reproaches Pharaoh for having enslaved and maltreated the Israelites. — The herald retorts, accusing the Hebrews of rebellion, and Moses as the cause of the ten plagues. — Moses justifies their conduct and his own. — The herald rejoins, charging them with evasion, hypocrisy, and theft. — Moses exculpates the

Jews and asserts the majesty of Israel's God. — The herald once more urges them to reflect on the consequences of their refusal of Pharaoh's offers. — Moses rejects them peremptorily and breaks off the conference. — The herald quits the Jewish camp. — A scout arrives, announcing the near approach of the Egyptian forces. — The Jews, alarmed by the danger, reproach Moses with having brought them out of Egypt to perish in the desart; and propose to return and submit to Pharaoh. — Moses reprimands them for their ingratitude. — His apostrophe to *Liberty*. — Soothes and persuades the people to have patience and courage. — They applaud. — The fickleness of popular opinion compared to chaff blown to and fro by the wind; — to a ship tossed by winds and waves. — The Jewish host retire under cover of a dark cloud. — Encamp on the border of the Red Sea, and there await the will of Heaven.'

From this view of the subject, the reader will easily see that, even if it were well treated, it is not well imagined. We find no novelty of thought, no ornament of style; and the incidents are in no way dramatic, but are all comprized in vapid narration or tedious dialogue. The children of Israel have always been represented as an untoward and stiff-necked generation, and Mr. Smith takes no pains to exhibit them in a more amiable point of view. 'Rogue,' — 'rascal,' — 'demagogue,' — 'rabble-rout,' — are the epithets with which he generally favours them; and how well the dignity of the principal character is sustained, the reader may judge from the interview between Moses and the messenger sent by Pharaoh to persuade the Israelites to return to Egypt.

' Scarce had the deep consult begun, when lo!
A messenger arrives, sent by the foe,
Who straight admitted, in their presence stands;
A fillet graced his head, an olive branch his hands.
To whom the man divine, in tone severe;
" Egyptian, speak! declare what brings thee here?
Com'st thou to spy the weakness of our host,
Purloin some booty, or surprize some post? —
Declare, what art, — from whence, — from whom com'st thou?"
Inclining gently, while he touch'd his brow,
The messenger to him yields this reply:
" I come not here your camp to spoil or spy,
Imri, my name: — th' ensigns that I bear,
My sacred office, mine intent declare.
From him I come, of wisdom the bright star,
The king of kings, the thunderbolt of war,
Whose glory o'er the universe extends!
Pharaoh to Moses greeting, gracious sends." —
" Sends what?" said Moses, " scorpions, whips, or stings?
The usual present of *your* king of kings?"' (C. i. p. 3.)

In this way they squabble through four pages, when Moses, with Lacedemonian conciseness,

> ——' ended the debate.
> " Herald thou may'st depart, no longer wait." '

The second canticle opens with a piece of information which the most sceptical need not hesitate to admit, viz. that when

> —' on the sandy beach the Hebrews halt,
> First view the sea, and find its waters salt,'

they are exceedingly surprized and alarmed. Moses, however, like a good General, attends to all the minutiæ of the expedition, orders breakfast, and gives his followers leave to go to sleep. In the mean time, his wife and children arrive with his father-in-law, and a joyful meeting takes place between Zipporah and her lord: but scarcely has the lady dried the tears of joy from her eyes, when, abusing her sex's privilege, even as most largely set forth by the unwearied tongue of a garrulous old nurse, she makes a speech of fifty-five lines, to prove that, had her husband been drowned among the bulrushes, she should not have had the pleasure of meeting him at that time! He repays her in her own coin, by giving her as well-timed a narration, three times as long, of his having slain the Egyptian, with all the train of consequences that resulted from the act. It is somewhat surprising that they never made known these interesting discoveries to each other before. — At last, the poet manifests some sort of conscience, and puts an apology into the mouth of his hero:

> ' But, love, I tire thee with this long detail,
> A kinder greeting should thy presence hail.'

Unfortunately, just as he is about to make amends for his tediousness, Aaron abruptly enters to inform him that the foe is at hand.

In the third canticle, we are informed in two prosaic lines that the children of Israel passed through the Red Sea. How the author could read the unvarnished account, venerable in its simplicity, which is contained in the book of Exodus, and yet fall so far short even of the mere narrative, is truly wonderful. We present our readers with his simile on the occasion, that they may see how much the language of their country is indebted to him for enriching it with gleanings from others, gained during his captivity:

> ' So in Helvetia, in some deep *ravine*,
> Where the sun's cheering rays but seldom shine,
> Water on either side condens'd to ice,
> To view, appears a crystal precipice.

Reviv'd their courage and their *espérance,*
'Advance!' their leader cried: 'they all advance'
(C. iii. p. 26.)

Yet Mr. Smith has as good a right to call hope *espérance,* as Lord Byron has to call a rose and a nightingale *gul* and *bulbul,* &c. — The next simile, on the overthrow of Pharaoh, presents a still better specimen of the author's wish to lessen the difficulties under which our rhyme labours, from its terminations being in general confined to monosyllables:

'Thus from the regions of eternal light,
Hurl'd down and plung'd in realms of endless night,
Rebellious Satan fell, decreed to be
Sweltered in flames of a sulphureous sea;
Like streams of lāva of Vesuvio
That burning, blazing, from its crater flow.' (P. 30.)

Again; canticle 5th:

'Thus they had fall'n, an unresisting prey,
Had Moses not instructed Joshua.'

It is a lamentable fact that this gentleman is not more at home in lyrical than in epic poetry; since Moses sings a hymn which makes us wish again for the plain prose whence his ideas are taken. Shortly afterward he *gives out* the commandments in metre, so strongly resembling the versions which we have seen worked in a sampler among the very juvenile part of our female acquaintance, that we cannot believe the coincidence to be purely accidental. The lines to which we allude, which rise to our recollection in all the pride of cross stitch and bird's eye, and with all the accompaniment of framing and glazing, begin thus:

"Thou shalt have none other god but me,
Before no idol bow thy knee,
Take not the name of God in vain,
Nor dare the Sabbath-day profane."

Now for Mr. Smith's imitation:

'No other God thou shalt adore but me,
Nor unto graven image bend thy knee:
Not guiltless he who takes my name in vain,
Keep Sabbath holy, and from work refrain.' (P. 54.)

He best knows how far he is amenable to the charge of plagiarism. We are aware that most remarkable coincidences have existed among the sons of genius, but fame is unjust, and fortune is fickle; and the poet of the sampler is lost in oblivion, while Mr. Smith modestly expresses his hopes that *his* name will be handed down for ever more, with that of the hero of his song.

We need not dwell any longer on this poem. The impression left on our mind, at its close, is much the same with that which is produced by the home-question of the author's prototype Mr. Boyd:

> "Now was not Pharaoh a very great rascal,
> Not to let the children of Israel with their wives and
> their sons and daughters go out into the wilderness
> to eat the Lord's Paschal?"

The present author describes himself as painter to the Great Mogul; and, since he thus appears to have interest in that part of the world, we would advise him to apply for the office of poet-laureat to the Grand Lama. We could safely add our mite of support, by recommending so tranquil a Muse to the protection of a monarch who is reported to be particularly partial to that species of composition which is called in nursery-language *a lullaby.*

ART. X. *Hermes Scythicus;* or, the radical Affinities of the Greek and Latin Languages to the Gothic: illustrated from the Moeso-Gothic, Anglo-Saxon, Francic, Alemannic, Suio-Gothic, Islandic, &c. To which is prefixed, a Dissertation on the Historical Proofs of the Scythian Origin of the Greeks. By John Jamieson, D.D. F.R.S. E. and F.S.A. S. Author of an Etymological Dictionary of the Scottish Language, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 368. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

TWO distinct ranges of inquiry occupy this volume, and divide it into two parts; the one archæological, which treats of the origin of the Greek nations, and of the savage tribes who may be supposed to have been their progenitors; the other etymological, treating of the origin of the Greek language, and of the primary meaning of those indeclinables which may be supposed to have formed its elementary particles. The result of these investigations is to favour the opinion of a Gothic origin of the Greeks; for it is in Scythian antiquity, and in Scythian language, that the author seeks for the stem-tribes and stem-words of the Hellenistic population.

On the name of Scythia, Dr. Jamieson disserts in his first section, but not satisfactorily, according to those who hold the word *Scyth* to be a Greek corruption, contraction, or misspelling of the words East-Goth. In Herodotus, it is stated that the West-Goths, or Massagetai, inhabited the lower parts of the borders of the Danube; and that the East-Goths occupied the modern Turkestan. Now it is precisely the country north-east of the Caspian which was denominated Scythia, and which we know to have been the residence of the East-Goths. In some dialects, these adjectives will have been used in the comparative form, Wester-Goths and Easter-Goths; and hence may have been derived the Visigoths and Ostrogoths of the historians of a later age. The waves of human population successively flow from Asia; and that which introduced the forefathers of the Gothic nations seems to have entered Europe along the isthmus intervening between the Black Sea and the Caspian, first overspreading the southern skirts of Russia. Moeso-Goth, again, appears to be a dialectic variation of West-Goth, and not exclusively to designate, as the author maintains, (p. 12.) the Goths of Moesia.

In his fifth and subsequent sections, Dr. Jamieson proceeds to consider and to class the Pelasgi. He makes them one people with the Hellenes: but here again, we think, the evidence is deficient; and we rather suspect the name Pelasgi to be one and the same word with *Belgæ*; the Greeks being likely to spell the sound of the word *Welsh* in the one manner, and the Latins in the other. Hence we should class the Pelasgi with the Cimmerian or Cumbrian nations; with that family of tribes, whose early or original language was Welsh. The Hellenes, on the contrary, appear to have had the Sanskrit for their mother-tongue, and were probably driven into European Greece in consequence of that siege and destruction of Nineveh which is recorded by the prophet Nahum. Miletus was the port to Nineveh. Among the Milesian tales, occurs that of Pyramus and Thisbe, the scene of which lies by the tomb of Ninus; it was invented therefore at Nineveh. Now if Miletus derived its literature from Nineveh, and European Greece from Miletus, Nineveh must in fact have been the primary source of Greek civilization; since manners, arts, luxuries, and commerce always partake the same road with literature. That Nineveh, and the contiguous though inimical Bactria, were both inhabited by a Sanskrit population, is the more likely because the names of the Assyrian kings are mostly significant in Sanskrit; and because the Bactrians, even in the time of Alexander, were intelligible to the Greeks. Dr. Herbert Marsh, a weighty authority, contends in his *Horæ Pelasgicæ* for the Doric origin of this tribe, but not convincingly.

Section ix. Dr. J. here speaks of the Scythian origin of the Pelasgi; — in what sense? Cimmerian nations may have preceded the Gothic nations in occupying the northern coast of the Euxine; and indeed the Crimea is known to have contained and to have been named after a colony of that race: but, although Scythia was first perhaps inhabited by Pelasgi, and next by the East-Goths, this circumstance does not authorize the confounding of two tribes so wholly distinct in language and manners as the Welsh and the Goths. Early nations must always be classed by their languages; and, during their nomade state, they so rapidly follow their cattle or fly before their enemies across whole provinces, that to have inhabited the same district is no proof of common descent or of allied origin.

In the eleventh section, the inquiry is first begun, in a proper manner, what was the language of the Pelasgi? and the following decisive passage is quoted from Herodotus:

> 'It must be admitted, indeed, that Herodotus does not seem to have been aware of this radical identity. He speaks, as if he had been an entire stranger to the distinguishing characters of the Pelasgi, and even as impressed with the idea that the Greek language had still remained distinct, without any mixture or alteration. "But what language," he says, "the Pelasgi used, I cannot state with certainty. If, however, it may be permitted to speak of them by conjecture, from those who constitute the principal remains of the Pelasgi, who, dwelling above the Tyrseni, inhabit the city Creston, and of the Pelasgi who inhabit Placia and Scylax in the Hellespont, and once lived together with the Athenians; and whatever other Pelasgic towns changed their names; if it be proper to speak by conjecture, the Pelasgi used a barbarous language. If, then, the whole Pelasgic nation was such, the Attic nation, being Pelasgic, when it entered among the Hellenes, also learned the language of the latter. For neither does the language of the Crestonians, nor of the Placians, agree with that of those who live around them. They agree, however, with each other; and shew that what character soever their language bore, when they took up their residence in these places, the same it still retains. But the Hellenic nation, as it appears to me, has from its very existence always used the same language. This nation, when it was separated from the Pelasgic, being weak, from small beginnings increased by frequent accessions, especially of conterminous nations, and of others that were barbarous. According to my apprehension, however, the Pelasgic nation, being barbarous, never greatly increased."'

This citation plainly proves that the Pelasgi did not use a Greek dialect but a barbarous language; and those Pelasgi, who were absorbed into the Attic nation, are stated, on entering among the Hellenes, to have learned the language of the latter. Still, their original habits of utterance must have left some traces in the Attic dialect, which occasion its diversity from the other dialects of Greece. What are these traces? A love of terminations in *iota:* as νυνι for νυν, or οὐχι for οὐκ; — and a love of changing *sigma* into *tau:* as γλωττα for γλωσσα, or θαλαττα for θαλασσα. Now these very changes have been introduced into the Gothic dialect of Great Britain by the admixture of a Welsh or Cimbric tribe. Our adjectives in *y*, such as *wavy*, *showy*, *likely*, *speedily*, have in the other Gothic dialects consonantal terminations; and our roots in *t*, such as *kettle*, *smite*, *hate*, *white*, are in the other Gothic dialects spelt with *s*, as *kessel*, *schmeissen*, *hass*, *weiss*. The Cimbric infusion produces the same tinge in Cumberland as in Attica, and bestowed in both countries the *w*, or digamma.*

An attempt follows to defend the resemblance between the language of the Greeks and that of the Scythians: but this resemblance is very slight. The word πυρ, *fire*, may be both Scythian and Greek: but the proportion of Gothic words received into the Greek language is certainly very small. The question does not depend on passages from Diodorus, or other grammarians: any person moderately skilled in the two languages can judge of the fact by reading a few columns in the Lexicon. That Hyperboreans existed who spoke the Greek language is possible: but these were no doubt a Sanskrit colony from Sinope. We hear of Greek monotheists, or fire-worshippers, in very early times, professing the religion of the Persians, who had colleges at Sinope; and it is by no means clear that the entire population of Macedonia was not of this description. Hitherto, our commentators have chiefly directed their attention to the religion of the pagan, or polytheistic, Greeks: but the Pythagoreans, as the Persianizing Greeks were called, certainly formed in Natolia, in southern Italy, and in Macedonia, a vast sect, and produced almost every philosopher who is vaunted by the Pagans.

Dr. Jamieson's second dissertation, which is the more extensive of the two, undertakes the hopeless task of detecting in Gothic languages the roots of the Greek particles. The first attempt is made with the preposition ἀμφι, which may be etymologically connected with *ambo*, *both*, and describes probably the clasp, or grasp, within both arms, which naturally suggests the idea of *about*, or *around*. This preposition occurs in the Celtic dialects, and is likely thence to have passed into the Gothic, the Celtic population being in Europe the older of the two: but we know not how it can be proved that the Celtic tribes, of which the Pelasgic was one, are more antient in Europe than the Hellenes. This syllable is found in the forms *umb* and *ymb* in the Anglo-saxon, and in other Gothic dialects: but it seems most rational to refer its origin to the language in which it is significant. In English, it is retained only in our participles of the middle voice. "They are gone *a hunting*:" "I am *a reading*:" in Anglo-saxon, *beon ymb ræding.*

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* The Bishop of St. David's shews the digamma to be Pelasgic, and Dr. Herbert Marsh shews it to be double *u*.

The Greek ανα, *again*, or *against*, is with some appearance of plausibility referred to the same root with the English words *again* and *against*: but, as language is instinctive in the human race, and as every mother and child would agree on a peculiar language if not within reach of learning by communication, there is no ground for hunting back to one common source the several elements of language. Not only did no one primæval tongue exist, but, the ruder was the state of society, the greater was the number of languages spoken within a given district.

The Greek αντι, in *face of*, is more unfortunately and chimerically referred to the same root with our word *and*; which, according to Horne Tooke, signifies *add*. To speak the truth, notwithstanding the pedantry of quotation displayed in these pages, which are bristled with strange alphabets, and stammer at all the tongues of Babel, we do not discover in them that judicious character, that application of learning in the cause of good sense, which can alone stamp on curious toil a permanent and undecaying value. We will, however, from this portion of the work also make an extract:

' CHAP. VII. — OF Παρὰ.

' The connexion of παρὰ, as to its general application, with πείρω, and περάω, both signifying *transeo*, is obvious. The change of vowels, it is well known, is common, though the root be the same. I do not say that παρὰ had its origin from either of these verbs. But as it will be seen that this preposition has various cognates in the Goth. dialects, it is not improbable that it was formed from some word common to the Greeks and Goths. No one seems to have a better claim than the verb used by all the Gothic tribes to denote *motion*: Moes. G. *far-an*, A.S. *faer-en*, *far-en*, Alem. Germ. *far-en*, Isl. Su. G. *far-a*, Dan. *far-er*, E. *fare*, Belg. *vaer-en*, all signifying ire, to go; A.S. *fare*, *for* iter, expeditio, ' a journey, a voyage,' Somner; Isl. *faur*, *far*, Alem. *fara*, Su. G. *faerd*, id. The terms last mentioned also signify course, mode of procedure; manners, conduct. The A.S. cognate, *fare*, signifies family attendants; as used by Aelfric, and by Caedmon the oldest A.S. writer. The Longobards used *fara*, *phara*, for a generation, a family; as we learn from Paulus Diaconus, Lib. 2. c. 9.

' Notwithstanding the change of the labial, *p* being a letter scarcely used by the ancient Goths, there is great reason to think that their verb was radically the same with περάω and πείρω. It not only bears the same general signification; but the derivatives of both exhibit strong indications of affinity. As from Su. G. *far-a*, ire *foer-a*, ducere is formed, and *fora* vectura, also, modus agendi; so from πείρω the Greeks formed πόρ-ος transitus, πορ-εῖα, profectio, iter; ἔμ-πορ-ος, vector qui mare trajecit, Homer. Odyss. mercator; viator; (with the Scots *a farand-man*, Isl. *far menn* nautae); πόρ-ιον, navigium trajiciendis militibus comparatum, Diod. Sicul., a transport-ship (Su. G. *far-are*, navis, *faer-ia* navis trajectoria, *foer-a* transvehere); πορεύς, qui aliquem trajicit, portitor, (a *ferry*-man,) Hesych. From the same verb they also formed πορεύομαι proficiscor. The verb φέρω, fero, porto, seems to have had the same origin; whence φορὰ, portatio, latio, and φόρια navigium; Isl. *far* and *feria*, id. I cannot but observe, however, that both the Gr. and Goth. terms, which change ε or α into *o* or *oe*, bear a great resemblance to Moes. G. *faur* ante, also signifying *place*, *region*, as denoting *motion forward*, or from a *place*; as there can be no doubt that *faur* assumes the form of *for*, *fore*, *fora*, in A.S., and of *foer* in Su. G. Περ-άω, transeo, retains nearly the form of the Isl. verb, first person singular of the indicative, *fer* eo. I need scarcely add, that Lat, *fer-o*, *ferre*, to carry, has the very form as well as the signification, of the Goth. verb; as it borrows its preterite *tuli*, from another verb of the same stock, Moes. G. *thul-an*, A.S. *thol-ian*, Alem. *thol-en*, Su. G. *tol-a*, Scot. *thole*, ferre, perpeti. If, therefore, it be supposed that παρὰ originated from περάω, transeo, or some verb signifying motion, and common to the Greeks and Goths in an early period, such as *fara*; or from a noun, of a similar meaning, as πορεῖα, or *fara*; the idea suggested will apply to the most common acceptations of the preposition. Because of the latitude with which terms come to be used in their secondary or oblique senses, instances may be found of there being scarcely any apparent relation between these and what is undoubtedly the root; while it is perfectly conceivable, that a lively fancy, or an ingenious mind, may hit on another term, which seems far better adapted to include the various significations, although certainly no wise allied.

'Let us for a moment suppose *fara*, signifying journey, progress, course, also mode, manner, conduct, to be the preposition; and try it by some of the examples given in the explication of παρὰ. 'To construct a parallelogram *upon* a given straight line;' — 'to construct a parallelogram, — *course* in constructing it, — a given straight line.' In like manner, 'the *complements* of a parallelogram,' are the parts which extend as far as the *course* or direction of the given line. They may thus be called the *course-fillers*, with as much propriety as the *side-fillers*. 'The market-place which was formed beside the ships;' — 'The market-place was formed, — *course* of its formation — the ships;' being constructed *along* the harbour. That beautiful line,

Βῆ δ' ἀκέων παρὰ θῖνα πολυφλοίσβοιο θαλάσσης, (Homer)

may perhaps be rendered, 'He went in silence *along* the shore of the far resounding ocean.' 'He went, — *course*, the shore.' This was the line, the boundary of his *progress*. Θεὸς ἐδόκουν παρὰ τὸ μέγεθος τῶν πεπραγμένων; Lucian. 'I seemed a god *for* the greatness of my actions.' 'I seemed a god, — *course* of action producing this estimation, — my greatness.' Ἔστι καὶ παρ' ἐμοί τὶς ἐμπειριά; Demost. 'There is also some experience on my side;' literally, 'with me.' May he not be viewed as asserting his possession of this, as necessarily arising from his *course* in life, his many opportunities from his public *conduct*? Perhaps it deserves to be noticed, that the very term here used by the orator is evidently of Goth. extract. Ἐμπειριὰ, experience or skill, is from ἐν and πεῖρα, also signifying danger, experience, the latter being often the fruit of the former. But there can scarcely be a doubt, that this is originally the same with Su. G. *fara*, experiri; which, I suspect, is merely an oblique use of the verb as signifying ire; agere.'

In conclusion, we must admit that this volume does honour to the various learning, to the wandering industry, to the diving research, and to the patient investigation of the author: but he has rather imbibed the taste of the last than of the present century; and, like the learned in *us*, he often sinks into the pedant, when he might have risen into the critic. Balzac calls erudition the baggage-waggon of antiquity; and care should be taken to load it with useful or valuable stores.

ART. XI. *The Siege of Corinth*, a Poem. *Parisina*, a Poem. 8vo. 5s. 6d. sewed. Murray. 1816.

THOUGH Lord Byron has not chosen to give his name to these poems, the public cannot entertain any doubt of their legitimacy; since, in addition to the voice of report and the testimony of the publisher in the advertisements of the work, sufficient internal evidence of the fact is furnished not only by the general style and character of the compositions, but by various particular expressions and references contained in them. Nor do we see any sufficient ground for supposing (and this is the most material point to the reader) that the circumstance, to which we have alluded, has arisen from any consciousness of inferiority in these compared with his Lordship's former productions: because, even if they should be judged to contain nothing quite equal to the best parts which might be selected from their predecessors, they possess the same vigorous conception, and brilliant and successful elicitation, which have been by general consent ascribed to Lord Byron's muse.

On the general merits and defects of this noble author's poetry, we have had so many opportunities of expressing our opinion, that we shall not on the present occasion detain our readers with any such discussion. It will only be necessary to repeat that the greatest merit of the writer consists in his skill in dissecting the human character, and in drawing and contrasting the effects of the more violent passions; while his most general faults are a want of variety, a perpetual gloominess, and an unpardonable licence both of phraseology and of versification. His pictures exhibit the bold and decisive lines and striking contrasts which, in the sister-art, are to be found in the works of Rembrandt, accompanied by the same depth of shadow, and the same brilliancy of the few bright tints which they contain: but they seldom display any of the breadth of light, and the gay variety of colouring, which characterize the Italian school. We cannot better express our general ideas than by the above illustration, since these poems are too original to be compared with any other productions in the same art.

Of the two tales which are at present before us, the first is, in our opinion, endued with the least interest and merit; and the story is extremely meagre. It is well known that, in the year 1715, the city of Corinth underwent a siege and storm by the Turkish army which was led by the famous Vizier Ali Coumougi; and this is the action which the poem describes. Alp, a Venetian renegade, has a high command in the Vizier's army, and is incited to a vigorous prosecution of the siege not less by his thirst of revenge against his injured country than by the hope of possessing himself, in the assault, of the person of Francesca, the daughter of Minotti the governor of the town; to whom, in earlier days, before his crime, he had been a favoured suitor. Having wandered, in the night before the storm, through the infidel camp to the very gates of the town, the renegade encounters the form of his mistress, who earnestly warns him of the danger in which he stands of immediate and everlasting perdition: but he refuses to listen, and returns to the camp to prepare for the assault. The town is carried; and in the conflict Alp encounters Minotti, against whom he hesitates to raise his hand, eagerly mentioning Francesca, but he receives for answer that she died 'yester-night.' Horror-struck with the recollection of the vision which at the same moment he had himself witnessed, the wretched warrior recoils, and immediately receives his death by a shot through his head. Such of our readers, as are acquainted with this portion of history, will recollect that a dreadful explosion of gun-powder took place at this storm, which Lord Byron has worked up into a fine incident for the conclusion of his poem.

We shall now quote a part of the description of the repose of the night-scene, when Alp commences his solitary walk:

> 'The waves on either shore lay there
> Calm, clear, and azure as the air;
> And scarce their foam the pebbles shook,
> But murmured meekly as the brook.

The winds were pillowed on the waves;
The banners drooped along their staves,
And, as they fell around them furling,
Above them shone the crescent curling;
And that deep silence was *unbroke*,
Save where the watch his signal spoke,
Save where the steed neighed oft and shrill,
And echo answered from the hill,
And the wide hum of that wild host
Rustled like leaves from coast to coast,
As rose the Muezzin's voice in air
In midnight call to wonted prayer;
It rose, that chaunted mournful strain,
Like some lone spirit's o'er the plain:
'Twas musical, but sadly sweet,
Such as when winds and harp-strings meet,
And take a long unmeasured tone,
To mortal minstrelsy unknown.
It seemed to those within the wall
A cry prophetic of their fall:
It struck even the besieger's ear
With something ominous and drear,
An undefined and sudden thrill,
Which makes the heart a moment still,
Then beat with quicker pulse, ashamed
Of that strange sense it's silence framed;
Such as a sudden passing-bell
Wakes, though but for a stranger's knell.'

The simile printed in italics is extremely beautiful, and indeed the whole is excellent. The contrast to this stillness in the agitation of the hero is equally well-drawn:

' His head grows fevered, and his pulse
The quick successive throbs convulse;
In vain from side to side he throws
His form, in courtship of repose;
Or if he dozed, a sound, a start
Awoke him with a sunken heart.
The turban on his hot brow pressed,
The mail weighed lead-like on his breast,
Though oft and long beneath its weight
Upon his eyes *had* slumber *sate*,
Without or couch or canopy,
Except a rougher field and sky
Than now might yield a warrior's bed,
Than now along the heaven was spread.
He could not rest, he could not stay
Within his tent to wait for day,
But walked him forth along the sand,
Where thousand sleepers strewed the strand.

What pillowed them! and why should he
More wakeful than the humblest be?
Since more their peril, worse their toil,
And yet they fearless dream of spoil;
While he alone, where thousands passed
A night of sleep, perchance their last,
In sickly vigil wandered on,
And envied all he gazed upon.'

This is followed by another fine passage, in which the author, describing the surrounding objects, ('Lepanto's gulf: - - - - - the brow of Delphi's hill,' &c.) is led to apostrophize their antient glories: but we have not space to extract it.

Hitherto, the metre has been regular: but the reader must prepare to find in the subsequent extracts a change in that particular, which not even their utmost beauties can withhold us from censuring. It seems a strange perversion of taste, that, when the subject is rising in interest, and the incidents are becoming more powerful and affecting, the verse should on a sudden be changed to a style which is removed the farthest of all from dignity, and scarcely susceptible of it in any hands.

Alp's walk leads him to the spot on which the bodies of several of his own soldiers, slain in a preceding conflict, have become a prey to the wild dogs of the neighbourhood; and the reflection on this spectacle, which is painted with almost disgusting force and minuteness, is worthy of high commendation:

'Alp turned from the sickening sight:
Never had shaken his nerves in fight;
But he better could brook to behold the dying,
Deep in the tide of their warm blood lying,
Scorched with the death-thirst, and writhing in vain,
Than the perishing dead who are past all pain.
There is something of pride in the perilous hour,
Whate'er be the shape in which death may lower;
For Fame is there to say who bleeds,
And Honour's eye on daring deeds!
But when all is past, it is humbling to tread
O'er the weltering field of the tombless dead,
And see worms of the earth, and fowls of the air,
Beasts of the forest, all gathering there;
All regarding man as their prey,
All rejoicing in his decay.'

He has scarcely recovered from the horror of this sight, when he perceives the form of Francesca sitting close by his side. From the preceding sketch of the story, our readers will be aware that this figure is a ghost, and it is, unquestionably, one of the best of that very *questionable* class of objects. The description of the form is delicately expressed, and concludes with,

> ' Once she raised her hand on high;
> It was so wan, and transparent of hue,
> You might have seen the moon shine through.'

She begins by exhorting him, for the love of her, to retur to the true faith, and abandon the enemies of his country. Th scene is ably drawn, but it is too long for us to extract mor than the concluding part of it: viz. from the point at whic the spectre, finding her first exhortation vain, proceeds in [illegible] more awful and impressive manner:

> ' " If not for love of me be given
> Thus much, then, for the love of heaven,—
> Again I say—that turban tear
> From off thy faithless brow, and swear
> Thine injured county's sons to spare,
> Or thou art lost; and never shalt see
> Not earth—that's past—but heaven or me.
> If this thou dost accord, albeit
> A heavy doom 'tis thine to meet,
> That doom shall half absolve thy sin,
> And mercy's gate may receive thee within:
> But pause one moment more, and take
> The curse of him thou didst forsake;
> And look once more to heaven and see
> Its love for ever shut from thee.
> *There is a light cloud by the moon—*
> *'Tis passing, and will pass full soon—*
> *If, by the time its vapoury sail*
> *Hath ceased her shaded orb to veil,*
> *Thy heart within thee is not changed,*
> *Then God and man are both avenged;*
> *Dark will thy doom be, darker still*
> *Thine immortality of ill.*"
>
> ' Alp looked to heaven, and saw on high
> The sign she spake of in the sky;
> But his heart was swollen, and turned aside,
> By deep interminable pride.
> This first false passion of his breast
> Rolled like a torrent o'er the rest.
> *He* sue for mercy! *He* dismayed
> By wild words of a timid maid!
> *He*, wronged by Venice, vow to save
> Her sons, devoted to the grave!
> No—though that cloud were thunder's worst,
> And charged to crush him—let it burst!
>
> ' He looked upon it earnestly,
> Without an accent of reply;

H

He watched it passing; it is flown:
Full on his eye the clear moon shone,
And thus he spake — " Whate'er my fate,
I am no changeling — 'tis too late:
The reed in storms may bow and quiver,
Then rise again; the tree must shiver.
What Venice made me, I must be,
Her foe in all, save love to thee:
But thou art safe: oh, fly with me!"
He turned, but she is gone!
Nothing is there but the column stone.
Hath she sunk in the earth, or melted in air?
He saw not, he knew not; but nothing is there.'

Here again is a good specimen of sudden contrast. The images described throughout the scene with the spectre are of the most unsubstantial and airy kind, — the transparent form of the apparition, and the light cloud passing over the moon; and, at the moment when the reader's mind is filled with those images, he is suddenly recalled to the picture of the 'column stone,' and the scarcely less immoveable warrior, standing by it. In a note on the lines which we have printed in italics, the noble author says, 'I have been told that the idea expressed from lines 597. to 603. has been admired by those whose approbation is valuable. I am glad of it: but it is not original — at least not mine; it may be found much better expressed in pages 182-3-4. of the English version of "Vathek" (I forget the precise page of the French), a work to which I have before referred; and never recur to, or read, without a renewal of gratification.' — The passage is undoubtedly striking: but we have a strong idea, though we cannot now hunt for the confirmation of it, that even the author of *Vathek* is not intitled to claim the merit of originating it.

The Turks pour into the town in such numbers that they overpower the defenders, and render their gallantry vain. Minotti and the remnant of his troops have retired into the church, the vault under which has been made their principal *depôt* of gun-powder; when the assailants are on the point of overwhelming them, and seizing the rich sacramental plate, Minotti sets fire to the magazine: and the whole building, with all the combatants in it, is blown up in one tremendous explosion:

' So near they came, the nearest stretched
To grasp the spoil he almost reached,
When old Minotti's hand
Touched with the torch the train—
'Tis fired!

Spire, vaults, the shrine, the spoil, the slain,
The turbaned victors, the Christian band,
All that of living or dead remain,
Hurled on high with the shivered fane,
In one wild roar expired!
The shattered town—the walls thrown down—
The waves a moment backward bent—
The hills that shake, although unrent,
As if an earthquake passed—
The thousand shapeless things all driven
In cloud and flame athwart the heaven,
By that tremendous blast—
Proclaimed the desperate conflict o'er
On that too long afflicted shore:
Up to the sky like rockets go
All that mingled there below:
Many a tall and goodly man,
Scorched and shrivelled to a span,
When he fell to earth again
Like a cinder strewed the plain:
Down the ashes shower like rain;
Some fell in the gulf, which received the sprinkles
With a thousand circling wrinkles;
Some fell on the shore, but, far away,
Scattered o'er the isthmus lay;
Christian or Moslem, which be they?
Let their mothers see and say!
When in cradled rest they lay,
And each nursing mother smiled
On the sweet sleep of her child,
Little deemed she such a day
Would rend those tender limbs away.
Not the matrons that them bore
Could discern their offspring more;
That one moment left no trace
More of human form or face
Save a scattered scalp or bone:
And down came blazing rafters, strown
Around, and many a falling stone,
Deeply dinted in the clay,
All blackened there and reeking lay.
All the living things that heard
That deadly earth shock disappeared:
The wild birds flew; the wild dogs fled,
And howling left the unburied dead;
The camels from their keepers broke;
The distant steer forsook the yoke—
The nearer steed plunged o'er the plain,
And burst his girth, and tore his rein;
The bull-frog's note, from out the marsh,
Deep-mouthed arose, and doubly harsh;

The wolves yelled on the caverned hill,
Where echo rolled in thunder still;
The jackal's troop, in gathered cry,
Bayed from afar complainingly,
With a mixed and mournful sound,
Like crying babe, and beaten hound:
With sudden wing, and ruffled breast,
The eagle left his rocky nest,
And mounted nearer to the sun,
The clouds beneath him seemed so dun;
Their smoke assailed his startled beak,
And made him higher soar and shriek—
Thus was Corinth lost and won!'

Our readers will, doubtless, be struck with the concluding part of this extract, which is certainly in the author's best manner: but the last line is in itself tame, and is rendered more flat by the contrast.

The faults of this poem are of the same character which we have described as belonging to Lord Byron's writings in general; and it is perhaps the best praise that we can bestow on him to say that, in order to exhibit his beauties, we are led to extract whole passages, while to shew his faults we are forced to pick out individual lines and expressions. On that ungrateful labour, we do not feel ourselves now obliged to spend many moments: but we cannot forbear to censure such expressions as that which occurs at line 910., which describes the Madonna 'and the *boy-god* on her knee;' and we hope that the author will, in the next edition, expunge or alter the four lines from line 957. to 960., the subject of which will scarcely be deemed proper for such a poem as the present.

Parisina, the second of the tales before us, is on the whole one of Lord Byron's happiest efforts: but, from the nature of the story, we doubt whether it will, in general, meet with the admiration which it appears to us to deserve. It is founded on an historical incident of the most affecting and horrid description; which we cannot describe better than by quoting (after Lord B.) the account given of it by Gibbon in his Miscellaneous Works:

' " Under the reign of Nicholas III. Ferrara was polluted with a domestic tragedy. By the testimony of an attendant, and his own observation, the Marquis of Este discovered the incestuous loves of his wife Parisina, and Hugo his bastard son, a beautiful and valiant youth. They were beheaded in the castle by the sentence of a father and husband, who published his shame, and survived their execution. He was unfortunate, if they were guilty; if they were innocent, he was still more unfortunate: nor is there any possible situation in which I can sincerely approve the last act of the justice of a parent."—*Gibbon's Miscellaneous Works*, vol. iii. p. 470. new edition.'

The name of Azo is substituted by Lord Byron for Nicholas, *metri gratiâ;* and the death of Parisina is not inflicted by the executioner, but she is condemned to witness the fulfilment of his sentence on her paramour, and from that moment she is never more seen, nor are any tidings heard of her. The poem opens with a twilight-scene, in which Parisina is represented in a bower, waiting the arrival of her lover:

'It is the hour when from the boughs
The nightingale's high note is heard;
It is the hour when lovers' vows
Seem sweet in every whisper'd word;
And gentle winds, and waters near,
Make music to the lonely ear.
Each flower the dews have lightly wet.
And in the sky the stars are met,
And on the wave is deeper blue,
And on the leaf a browner hue,
And in the heaven that clear obscure,
So softly dark, and darkly pure,
Which follows the decline of day,
As twilight melts beneath the moon away.

'But it is not to list to the waterfall
That Parisina leaves her hall,
And it is not to gaze on the heavenly light
That the lady walks in the shadow of night;
And if she sits in Este's bower,
Tis not for the sake of its full-blown flower—
She listens—but not for the nightingale—
Though her ear expects as soft a tale.
There glides a step through the foliage thick,
And her cheek grows pale—and her heart beats quick.
There whispers a voice through the rustling leaves,
And her blush returns, and her bosom heaves:
A moment more—and they shall meet—
'Tis past—her lover's at her feet.'

After this fatal interview, Parisina returns to the bed of her husband; and the discovery of her crime is occasioned by her pronouncing the name of Hugo in her sleep *. The first impulse on her husband's mind is that of immediately revenging himself: but he checks it: and how beautiful is the ensuing passage!

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* We recollect an incident in some respects similar, but under different circumstances as to the innocence of the heroine, in Mackenzie's beautiful novel of Julia de Roubigné.

'He plucked his poignard in its sheath,
But sheathed it ere the point was bare—
Howe'er unworthy now to breathe,
He could not slay a thing so fair—
At least, not smiling—sleeping—there—*
Nay, more:—he did not wake her then,
But gazed upon her with a glance
Which, had she roused her from her trance,
Had frozen her sense to sleep again—
And o'er his brow the burning lamp
Gleamed on the dew-drops big and damp.
She spake no more—but still she slumbered—
While in his thought, her days are numbered.'

In the morning, he brings the offenders to trial. The description of them, as they stand awaiting their condemnation, is truly striking, and affords another specimen of the author's skill in contrast. We cannot forbear to quote it at length:

'And still, and pale, and silently
  Did Parisina wait her doom;
How changed since last her speaking eye
  *Gl*anced *gl*adness round the *gl*ittering room,
Where high-born men were proud to wait—
Where Beauty watched to imitate
  Her gentle voice—her lovely mien—
And gather from her air and gait
  The graces of it's queen:
Then,—had her eye in sorrow wept,
A thousand warriors forth had leapt,
A thousand swords had sheathless shone,
And made her quarrel all their own.
Now,—what is she? and what are they?
Can she command, or these obey?
All silent and unheeding now,
With downcast eyes and knitting brow,
And folding arms, and freezing air,
And lips that scarce their scorn forbear,
Her knights and dames, her court—is there:
And he the chosen one, whose lance
Had yet been couched before her glance,
Who—were his arm a moment free—
Had died or gained her liberty;
The minion of his father's bride,—
He, too, is fetter'd by her side;
Nor sees her swoln and full eye swim
Less for her own despair than him:
Those lids o'er which the violet vein—
Wandering, leaves a tender stain,

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* Othello will here be recalled to the reader's recollection. *Rev.*

Shining through the smoothest white
That e'er did softest kiss invite—
Now seemed with hot and livid glow
To press, not shade, the orbs below;
Which glance so heavily, and fill,
As tear on tear grows gathering still.

' And he for her had also wept,
But for the eyes that on him gazed:
His sorrow, if he felt it, slept;
Stern and erect his brow was raised.
Whate'er the grief his soul avowed,
He would not shrink before the crowd;
But yet he dared not look on her:
Remembrance of the hours that were—
His guilt—his love—his present state—
His father's wrath—all good men's hate—
His earthly, his eternal fate—
And hers,—oh, hers!—he dared not throw
One look upon that deathlike brow!
Else had his rising heart betrayed
Remorse for all the wreck it made.'

One part of this description forcibly recalls Burke's famous ranting passage relative to the unfortunate Marie Antoinette, in his Letter on the French Revolution; when he speaks of the time at which ten thousand swords would have leaped from their scabbards for her protection, had even a word of calumny been uttered against her.

The manner in which the wretched husband and father passes sentence on the criminals is highly dignified and judicious:

' " Hugo, the priest awaits on thee,
And then—thy crime's reward!
Away! address thy prayers to Heaven,
Before its evening stars are met—
Learn if thou there canst be forgiven;
It's mercy may absolve thee yet.
But here, upon the earth beneath,
There is no spot where thou and I
Together, for an hour, could breathe
Farewell! I will not see thee die—
But thou, frail thing! shalt view his head—
Away! I cannot speak the rest:
Go! woman of the wanton breast;
Not I, but thou his blood dost shed:
Go! if that sight thou canst outlive,
And joy thee in the life I give." '

The description of Parisina, when she hears the sentence, is most beautiful: but we cannot extract it at length:

'To speak she thought — the imperfect note
Was choked within her swelling throat,
* * * * * * * *
* * * Again she thought to speak,
Then burst her voice in one long shriek,
And, to the earth she fell like stone,
Or statue from its base o'erthrown.'

The natural simile in the concluding line is, as far as we recollect, (and we wonder at it,) original.

The scene of the execution of Hugo is pourtrayed with equal force and feeling: but our quotations have already been so long and frequent, that we must confine our remaining observations within narrow limits. The passage at the top of page 88., describing the effect of deep sorrow on Azo's appearance and character, is another example of that portraiture of the effect of the passions, of which we have already spoken as one of Lord Byron's chief merits. It concludes (as our extracts must) with this beautiful simile:

'The deepest ice which ever froze
Can only o'er the surface close—
The living stream lies quick below,
And flows—and cannot cease to flow.
Still was his sealed-up bosom haunted
By thoughts which Nature hath implanted;
Too deeply rooted thence to vanish,
Howe'er our stifled tears we banish;
When struggling as they rise to start,
We check those waters of the heart,
They are not dried—those tears unshed
But flow back to the fountain head,
And resting in their spring more pure,
For ever in its depth endure,
Unseen, unwept, but uncongealed,
And cherished most where least revealed.'

This last tale is written throughout in the octosyllabic metre, to which Lord Byron has in most of his works given a force and dignity that were before unknown to it. In phraseology, too, this poem is, with very few exceptions, not open to censure *. It is in fact the most equable of all the writer's works. Though it is occupied with some of the most violent and fatal of the human passions, and describes some of the most distressing situations in which human beings can be placed, the noble author has dealt with them more calmly than his usual custom would have led us to expect. The picture is indeed all gloom, but the *keeping* is good, and the general effect is as pleasing as any display of such tragical circumstances can be made.

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* Line 45. 'Or thought how *brief* such moments *last*;'
72. 'A name she *dare* not breathe by day;'
99. 'And whose that name? 'tis Hugo's, — his —
In sooth he had not deemed of this;'
313. '*Begun*' for '*began*;'
490. '*Done to death* by sudden blow;'
and some others, afford instances of deviations from elegance, *grammar, and just construction.*'

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR FEBRUARY, 1816.

POETRY AND THE DRAMA.

Art. 12. *The Life-Boat;* or, Dillon O'Dwire; a Poem, by the Rev. Wm. Liddiard. Crown 8vo. pp. 57. Dublin. 1815.

The hero of this piece, most ludicrously termed Dillon O'Dwire, once a man of rank and opulence, but now reduced to the lowlier estate of mediocrity, takes a cottage by the sea-side, next door to a more potent neighbour ycleped O'Maly, with whose daughter Melissa he of course immediately becomes enamoured. Being, however, of a somewhat wavering disposition, he grows weary of O'Maly's *ménage*, and is desirous of going abroad: but no sooner has he entered on his travels, than he conceives an equal longing for peace and tranquillity at home with his beloved. In compliance with this wish, he makes sail for the coast of Ireland, where he is becalmed for some time in full sight of the shore and his peaceful cottage: at length, they arrive, and the amorous O'Dwire gets into the boat; all which is finely described in the following lines:

> 'The sails are reefed — the danger's o'er —
> O'Dwire prepares to make the shore.
>
> 'Aloft the boat — the pulley hauls —
> Upon the waves it gradual falls; —
> Raised gently by the water's swell,
> It softly rose — as softly fell —
> 'Till with one spring, and fond embrace,
> Dillon first took commanding place, —
> His station sprung to all the prow,
> Commands his crew to stoutly row.' —

He no sooner has seated himself, however, than he very naturally falls *into a reverie:*

> '"Pull stout, my boys; — your weary feet,
> Soon shall your native country meet;" —
> They hail the grateful truth with glee; —
> Their master's mixed with reverie!' —

When awakened from this trance, he pursues his way to the abode of his mistress in a most heroic style — *just like an Aspin:*

'Such was O'Dwire — yet moved by love —
Just like the Aspin, seen to move.'

Unfortunately, Melissa's door is closed, and this causes great alarm in our hero's mind: — 'he trembles — stops — and pants for breath:' — at length he summons up resolution and rings the bell: Melissa is not in the house; and moreover a wedding is in full preparation. O'Dwire then goes home in another reverie, 'his arms involved in saddest knot.' He begins to stagger; and, had not his friend *Pride* picked him up, he would have fallen to the ground:

'He staggered — was about to fall —
But Pride, invoked, came to his call.'

Our hero, however, soon gets the better of this calamity, on hearing the signal of a ship in distress, when he springs into a life-boat, and in the most good-natured manner immediately saves the whole crew.

In the midst of all this rhodomontade, the author introduces a curious kind of metaphysical dissertation on the five senses, the result of which is that O'Dwire and Melissa are rational beings, (which, by the way, we should never have suspected,) and that her father Mr. O'Maly is a *man of excess*. Yet the personal charms of this latter gentleman compensate for all mental deficiencies; though he appears to have some complaint in one of his eyes, we know not what, except that it seems to have escaped from its socket:

'But so it was — O'Maly's eye
Had lost its proper boundary.'

This charming personage refuses to give his daughter to Dillon, and chooses for her a wealthier suitor, by name Sinclair. Mrs. O'Maly expostulates in vain; and her husband, in order to accomplish his purpose, informs his daughter that O'Dwire, on his return home, had been ship-wrecked and perished in the waters. Melissa, therefore, with the most obliging facility, consents to wed with Sinclair; who, like his rival, had been absent on his travels, and whose ship had been mistaken by the father for that of Dillon O'Dwire. Sinclair proves to have been one of those whom the angelic O'Dwire had rescued from destruction; and the meeting of the two rival lovers on the waves, with the surprize which they both experience at the unexpected event, is ludicrous enough. Having reached the shore in safety, the discarded O'Dwire, with thrilling heart and sobbing eye, beholds the nuptial morn arrive. Sinclair leads his beloved to the altar; and the priest, 'with vestment stoled,' begins the ceremony, when he is suddenly forbidden to proceed by the dissenting voice, of whom? can we suppose of the bridegroom himself? and for the most singular of reasons — the absence of the angel O'Dwire:

'Sinclair exclaims: —
"The rites suspend,
One miss I here, and that a friend!
In friendship's holy sacred name,
His presence, on this day I claim; —
Nay, I renounce Love's — Wedlock's state, —
Save he my joy participate."'

Dillon now comes running in to partake of the festivity of the scene: he embraces Sinclair, in *the middle aisle;* and they both proceed hand in hand to the altar. Here a slight mixture of confusion ensues: Melissa's bosom beats: O'Dwire prostrates himself: Sinclair's passion struggles: his breast swells: but at last he begins *to never-mind* it, and finally resigns his claim:

> 'Take her O'Dillon — she is thine,
> He said, my title I resign.' —

Moreover, to shew his extreme complaisance to his friend, he produces a deed, in which he had made over a certain portion of his fortune to Melissa; or, as it is most happily expressed,

> 'He spoke, — a deed then from his vest
> Took, and upon O'Dillon pressed.'

At sight of this deed, Melissa's eye begins to glisten, and Dillon's lips to quiver, when O'Maly, the *excessive* O'Maly, steps forth and forbids his daughter to accept the settlement: but he apportions to her the same dowry, is at length reconciled, and gives his consent to his daughter's union with Dillon. Sinclair then coolly pockets the deed, and decamps, leaving O'Dwire and his spouse to the full enjoyment of conjugal felicity.

Now really we do think that the Rev. Wm. Liddiard might have found some better employment for his time (we forbear to say his talents) than in scribbling such trash; and we know not what indulgence is due to a reverend divine, a minister of the Gospel, who chooses no more dignified topic of discourse than the loves of O'Dwire and Melissa, or even the excesses of O'Maly. The performance, too, is replete with absurdities, as well as the grossest grammatical blunders. At page 10., line 6., we find the verb 'proclaim' used as a substantive; and again at page 35., line 3. The verb *shine*, too, is twice applied in the same manner:

> 'Prometheus like, though dimm'd its shine,
> The lustre of its light divine.'

The elegant morality of the following couplet is somewhat striking:

> 'When we expect the summons hence,
> That man should stoop to count his pence.'

Sinclair's passion is sweetly depictured:

> 'His was no maudlin wavering flame,
> That *flitting* went, and *flitting* came.'

The ensuing is a couplet of peculiar originality and pathos:

> 'Scarce in the boat the astonished crew
> 'Ere they beheld the *ship in two.*'

Let us, however, release ourselves and our readers from this nugatory strain: — for in truth we are weary of exercising censure on a work which admits no room for a particle of commendation.

Art. 13. *Allan of Olway*, a Tale of the Eleventh Century. By John Bethune. 8vo. pp. 49. Bigg, &c. 1815.

Much cannot be said in favour of this poem, but it contains nothing very reprehensible; and the pages are so few that, as Dr. Johnson observed of an irksome hour, "it may be tedious, but it cannot be long."

Art. 14. *The Deserted Village Restored;* The Blind Beggar of Bethnal-Green, in Three Cantos: Pastorals, &c. By Arthur Parsey. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Hatchard. 1815.

The titles of these poems are unfortunately chosen, since *The Deserted Village*, *The Country Church-Yard*, *The Hermit*, &c. recall certain productions concerning which we should rather address the reader of this volume in the words of Mrs. Quickly, and "to comfort him, bid him that he should not think of those things." The present writer has a most curious *acrostic*, in which nearly every line begins with a consonant; and in his pastorals, &c. may be found 'garrulous geese and hens,' 'blushing clouds,' and 'blushing hills set on a blaze,' 'pinky cheeks,' and 'sweet creamy turtle doves:' but we perceive no resemblance to his models, except in those lines which are borrowed from them. A stanza taken at random may serve as a specimen.

'Halloo! ah, ah! oh! oh! alack!
My heart assaults my breast, my back,
'Tis raging, driving, being *drove*.
Tell me, my soul, can this be love!'

Tell us, Mr. Parsey, can this be poetry?

Art. 15. *Emilia of Lindinau:* or, The Field of Leipsic. A Poem in Four Cantos. By Mary Arnald Haughton. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Whittingham and Arliss. 1815.

A pretty little novel in verse, written in the manner of Mr. Walter Scott, whose works seem to have suggested most of the pictures and descriptions. The 'eagle eyes' of some of his personages are here picked out to adorn the form of his 'moss-trooper;' who is now introduced under the title of 'the Lord of Lindinau,' in these terms:

'Within that Gothic hall of state
The Lord of Lindinau *was sate*.' (P. 5.)

We may add that the above are the most incorrect lines in the poem, which displays an easy versification, though it has but little originality.

Art. 16. *Poems, on various Occasions*, by the Rev. W. Fernyhough, B. A. Vicar of Aspatria, in the County of Cumberland. Crown 8vo. pp. 232. *Price Nine Shillings,* in Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

To such of our readers as love *ale* and *tobacco,* — or, as Mr. Fernyhough calls them, 'the glass, Virginia, and the mirthful jest,' — these effusions will at least afford amusement, by frequently recalling them to those favourite subjects: whether they will be more generally interesting, we must be permitted to doubt: but our readers shall judge for themselves; and, as a poet has a better chance on a *poetical* subject, we shall select the lines

' TO THE MEMORY OF A YOUNG LADY SUDDENLY CUT OFF IN HER 22D YEAR.

' The dear remains that sleep in silence here,
Claim one kind thought, one tributary tear;
Affection here shall poignant grief display,
And the deep sigh, sweet friendship often pay.
Blooming she rose, like some bright vernal morn,
Engaging softness did her ways adorn:
In her shone grace and elegance combin'd,
And ev'ry virtue form'd her youthful mind;
But pity held a sacred empire there,
For pale distress was her peculiar care;
But tho' so fair, so amiable, so gay,
Short was her bloom, and transient was her stay,
She sunk untimely, like some beauteous flower,
That fades beneath the storm's despoiling power.'

The subsequent epitaph is rather better:

' At Heaven's high will, return'd to native earth,
Here rest the ashes of distinguish'd worth;
Of worth, that shone by genuine sense, refin'd,
And beam'd the radiance of a noble mind;
Averse to pomp, ambition, noise, and strife,
The social virtues mark'd his peaceful life.
To sooth each sorrow, and to heal each woe,
He bade the stream of human kindness flow;
At friendship's call, he gloried to attend,
And liv'd confess'd, the gen'rous, faithful friend.
This last, sad record, then may truly shew,
How short our ties, our friendships here below;
How quickly Death man's fondest hope destroys,
Damps his frail bliss, and blasts his brightest joys.'

Mr. F. has availed himself rather considerably of the services of the "Dids" and the "Doths:" as witness the address on leaving Buxton:

' Yet not without one grateful thought farewell:
Your healing pow'rs the muse *doth* fondly tell.'

And again and again:

' Hopes that to all a pleasure *did* impart.' P. 77.
' Thy dawning worth to all *did* thee endear.' Ibid.
' Whilst thus fair hope kind comfort *doth* impart.' P. 83.
' Shall own both pow'r and pity *did* prevail.' P. 88.
' Sorrow's deep plaints thy greatness *did* improve.' P. 93.

Cum multis aliis. These families of *Did* and *Do* have long dwelt on the confines of Parnassus, and have earned a decent livelihood by helping those frequenters of the spot, who from lameness, or heaviness in a certain quarter, found the ascent difficult in their progress up the hill. Many of the votaries, indeed, have refused to accept of their assistance, not liking to be seen in company with such folks: but it is not every one who can be so fastidious; and they will in all probability, therefore, still thrive and *do* well. Mr. Fernyhough, having travelled this way some years, and availed himself of the services of these industrious people, will probably not be disposed now to withdraw his countenance from them: but to the younger journeyers in

> ——— " that flowery road,
> Which marks the Muses' sacred, lov'd, abode,"

we strongly suggest the wisdom of resisting all solicitations to make use of the services of any of the families in question, when they cannot shew good authority for the *places* which they claim.

Art. 17. *The Portfolio:* or the Family of Anglade, a Drama, in Two Acts, as performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By James Kenney, Author of " Raising the Wind," &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1816.

The scene of this drama is laid in France, and not only the characters and incidents are adapted to that country, but the turn of expression is in many instances so Gallic, that Mr. Kenney must either have borrowed or translated from some production in that language, or he has been very successful in imitation. Some of the lower order of persons, however, speak a truly English slang, which is very heterogeneous when compared with the other phraseology. The plot has some interest, and a degree of bustle which may keep alive the attention of the audience: but the piece has no novelty of either personage or event.

NOVELS.

Art. 18. *The Magic of Wealth.* By T. S. Surr, Author of " A Winter in London," &c. &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. Cadell and Davies. 1815.

An improbable and rather uninteresting novel is here founded principally on facts relative to the suppression of the Jesuits. Some of the characters are well delineated, and the sentiments are laudable: but in this, as in many other books of the same class, the respective personages are made to employ language and expressions which are much too exalted for their supposed condition; and they chill the reader's sympathy at the moment of their greatest hurry and distress, because they then seize him by the button, while they compose or borrow long harangues on political and philosophical subjects.

Art. 19. *Bardouc;* or the Goat-herd of Mount Taurus, an Eastern Tale. Translated from the French of Adrien de Sarrazin. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1815.

A lively, allegorical, oriental, fairy tale; in which it is hinted to the reader that he must find a good moral, and therefore, though the real drift of the story be somewhat obscure, he is induced to

> " —— set his wits at work to find
> What good the author had in mind;"

and this may perhaps answer the purpose of [illegible] nearly as well.

Art. 20. *Hawthorn Cottage;* or the Two Cousins. A Tale. By J. Jones. 12mo. 2 Vols. [illegible] Boards. [illegible]. 1815.

[illegible]

Hawthorn Cottage is of the same style of architecture with the above-mentioned villas; and, though we have endeavoured [illegible] from a sense of duty, the employment has afforded so little amusement that we cannot invite our readers to pay it a visit.

Art. 21. *Varieties of Life;* or, Conduct and Consequences. By the Author of "Sketches of Character." 12mo. 3 Vols. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

We have seldom met with a novel which more palpably betrayed a variety of authors than the present publication. The serious passages, and the history of Minard and his [illegible], are below mediocrity; but those readers who will trouble themselves either to peruse or to skip over these sentimental horrors, will be rewarded by the comic and natural delineations contained in Elizabeth's letters to her sister; and by other parts which afford an amusing exhibition of various forms of society and shades of manners, while they convey a caution against the desire of attaining to a sphere of life for which we are not fitted by habit and education.

Art. 22. *Tales of Fancy.* By S. H. Burney. Vol. I. containing the Shipwreck. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Colburn. 1816.

Of some of Miss Burney's novels we have formerly spoken with approbation, and with impressions by no means unfavourable we sat down to read the present volume.

'The Shipwreck' is the first of a Series of Tales, which it appears to be the intention of the fair author to publish under the above title; and, if we are to judge of those which are to follow from that which has led the way, the marvellous is to be mixed with the natural, and 'the *possibility* of the leading circumstances' is to be deemed a sufficient foundation for the story. Without discussing the question raised by this presumption, we thank her for the pleasing tale which she has here offered to us. The plot, which will be seen to present a sort of female Robinson Crusoe, is comprized in few words.

The wife and daughter of a baronet, (or knight,) holding a distinguished station in Hindoostan, are shipwrecked, between the Cape of Good Hope and New Holland, on their passage to join him. Having been lashed to the same fragment of a broken mast, they are drifted on an uninhabited island; '*the new discovery*' of which Miss Burney justifies (in her Dedication to Lady Crewe) by the opinion of 'a naval officer well qualified to resolve her doubts,' who says that 'there is good room in the Indian ocean for an island, or several, — and large enough for the required purpose, in places where it is not certain that any ship has been.' The ladies find a rude cave, of which they take possession; and they adopt the requisite measures for obtaining a daily supply of food. After having remained there three weeks without interruption, Lady Earlingford meets with a Mr. Fitz Aymer, who had been also preserved from the wreck. Against him she had been violently prejudiced in England, in consequence of circumstances which are well explained; and she feels a repugnance to this increase of her society, which is not diminished by the consideration of the danger to which she fancies that her daughter is exposed. This difficulty, however, she obviates by making Viola assume the dress of a male cousin, whose trunk is cast on shore; and the great interest of the tale consists in the gradual effect produced on the minds of both the ladies, as the real character of Fitz Aymer is rendered apparent. This part of the tale is well delineated, and shews the difference between a masterly and a hacknied pen.

We will not offend Miss Burney by spoiling the rest of the story, in attempting an abridged account of it. We doubt not that they will be as much pleased with the scene between the father and Fitz Aymer's friend as we were, will approve the moral and religious lessons which the tale inculcates, and will close the volume with the conviction that, "though the time of life is short," they have not mis-spent an hour in the relaxation of reading it. — We must, however, observe that the dying lady's letter is too long, and would be not only more natural but more effective, if it contained as many *words* as it occupies *lines;* that Viola resorts to fainting at least once too often; and that we see no reason for making the island volcanic, as no use is made of that circumstance. The second volume, to contain "The Secret," is announced.

EDUCATION.

Art. 23. *French Delectus;* consisting of short Sentences, Historical Anecdotes, Geographical Descriptions, &c., on a Plan similar to that of Dr. Valpy's Latin Delectus. By James Foley, of the University of Paris, Classical Master, and French Teacher at Reading School. 12mo. 2s. Law and Whittaker.

An useful elementary book; in which, however, the epigrams and longer passages towards the end, being mostly taken from celebrated writers, should have had the names of the respective authors annexed.

Art. 24. *Juvenile Pieces,* in Prose and Verse; with Lessons for Spelling, and all the difficult Words in the Reading Lessons alphabetically arranged, with their Orthoëpy in the opposite Column, &c. &c. By William Angus, A. M. Teacher of English, Author of "A New System of English Grammar," "A Pronouncing Vocabulary of the English Language," &c. 12mo. 2s. Printed at Glasgow; and sold in London by Cowie and Co. 1815.

We pity the poor child who may be doomed to learn by heart the introductory pages of this book, containing all the words which exemplify what Mr. Angus calls the *name-sounds* of the vowels, the 'shut sounds,' and 'the occasional sounds:' but, when this formidable introduction shall have been passed through, or passed over, his little pupils will find variety and attraction in the ensuing selection.

Art. 25. *Friendly Labours*, or Tales and Dramas for the Amusement and Instruction of Youth. By Lucy Peacock, Author of "The Adventures of Six Princesses of Babylon," "Visit for a Week," &c. 2 Vols. 12mo. Baldwin and Co. 1815.

We may trace an useful moral in all these Tales and Dramas; and many of them also evince considerable invention. For the sake of young readers, however, we regret that the language is not always critically elegant; and that in the second volume the correct Mr. Seymour constantly addresses his ward by the appellation of *Miss*, while the rudeness of Arabella is over-drawn:— yet these slight imperfections need not prevent us from recommending the work.

Art. 26. *Elémens de la Grammaire Françoise.* A Grammar of the French Language, compiled from the best Authorities, on a new Plan; designed to prepare the Learner for conversing in French, and calculated to abridge the Time usually spent in acquiring that Accomplishment. By Ph. Le Breton, M.A. 12mo. Law and Whittaker. 1815.

As the result of M. Le Breton's experience in teaching, he communicates his opinion that the French language is more rapidly acquired by using a grammar written in French, with a partial translation at the foot of each page, than by employing one that is composed entirely in English. We are not inclined to dispute this assertion; and we recommend to such persons as are disposed to try this method the purchase of his grammar, since it is short and compendious.

Art. 27. *The School-Orator;* or Exercises in Elocution, theoretically arranged; from which, aided by short practical Rules to be committed to Memory, Students may learn to articulate every Word with Propriety, be taught to modulate the Voice, &c. &c. By James Wright, Public and Private Teacher of English Elocution. 12mo. pp. 254. Miller.

Mr. Wright has here done much towards the improvement of young orators; and, though his rules still require a teacher's explanation, they are perhaps as clear as the subject allows them to be, and his progressive selections will also be useful.

Art. 28. *Grammatical Errors*, which occur in Conversation and Writing, pointed out and corrected by a simple and familiar Method, agreeably to the Rules of Murray's Grammar. 12mo. pp. 38. Kent, &c. 1815.

It is not supposed that this little tract can supersede the use of a grammar, but it may be recommended as containing the principal rules of Mr. Lindley Murray's Grammar, illustrated by examples of their violation.

POLITICS.

Art. 29. *An Essay on the Influence of a low Price of Corn on the Profits of Stock;* shewing the Inexpediency of Restrictions on

Importation: with Remarks on Mr. Malthus' two last Publications: "An Inquiry into the Nature and Progress of Rent;" and "The Grounds of an Opinion on the Policy of restricting the Importation of Foreign Corn." By David Ricardo, Esq. 8vo. pp. 50. 3s. Murray. 1815.

Mr. Ricardo was one of the earliest and most intelligent writers on the Bullion-Question; and his first essay on that subject, with his subsequent answer to Mr. Bosanquet, was duly noticed by us (M. R. Vols. lxiii. and lxiv.) at the time of publication: but, whatever may have been his attainments since that time in the study of political economy, we cannot congratulate him on the acquisition of an improved style. His language was much clearer, and he seemed on the whole much more at home, on the subject of banking: an advantage arising probably from the connection of that topic with the sphere of his professional labours, the Stock-Exchange. Our limits do not permit us to notice at length the contents of the present tract; in which we have observed (pp. 18. 30. 32. 35, 36.) passages indicative of sound views, accompanied (pp. 20. 26.) by others of a much more questionable character. So complicated a subject is not to be taken up in a critical journal unless at considerable length, which would require a connection of the present with other essays; and we can do little more than express our regret that Mr. R. should not be more successful in conveying opinions, which are undoubtedly intitled to the confidence of the public, in a style better calculated to fix its attention. He does not seem to be aware how little arithmetical statements are relished in a course of reasoning; nor is it altogether pardonable in one who is accustomed professionally to accurate calculation, to introduce (pp. 12. 14.) 50 per cent. as a supposed profit, when one-fifth of the sum would have been nearer the truth, and equally conducive to the illustration of his reasoning. To such objections we must add that he has supplied no table of contents, and that the chain of reasoning is frequently broken by drawing the attention of the reader from the text to a note. These remarks are not intended to depreciate the arguments of this liberal and enlightened inquirer, but to stimulate him to bestow more pains on his composition, and to give the result of his labours to the public in a more attractive shape. Much yet remains to be explained on the subject of banking, exchange, and money-business; topics on which Mr. R. would, in our opinion, be heard with attention by the public. He would do well, likewise, to consider whether it be not exorbitant to charge 3s. for a pamphlet of 50 pages.

Art. 30. *A Letter addressed to the Earl of Liverpool*, by Lord Kinnaird. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway. 1816.

It is known to the public that Lord Kinnaird was lately obliged to return from Paris to England, at the instance of the French government; and that, in consequence of the introduction of this fact in the House of Peers, Lord Liverpool expressly acquitted Lord K. of any conduct which could implicate his honour and character.

The present pamphlet is intended to establish the same point; and it includes several other statements, of which it is impossible for us to judge, but which render it interesting to most readers. The preponderance of Russian influence at the French court is very broadly asserted by Lord Kinnaird, and the unpopularity of this country is maintained with equal plainness. The whole is written with much animation; which, together with the bias of his Lordship's political views, will appear from the following passage;—part of the comment on the Duke of Richelieu's official note to our ambassador, justifying the order for Lord K.'s departure:

'The last period to which the minister adverts is the second restoration of the King; since which time he accuses me of professing openly my former principles and opinions, and of continuing to see the persons—*qui la rigeur des lois a atteint.*

'I do undoubtedly profess the principles and opinions which I formerly held; and if I remain an honest man, shall probably continue to do so, fully as long as the Duke of Richelieu is in the habit of adhering to his; but I entreat his Excellency to believe, that, under a government which has annihilated the liberty of the press; which has revived penal statutes, known only in the worst periods of the monarchy; which fosters a spirit of proscription and persecution, familiar to the blackest epochs of the revolutions; which already counts *nineteen thousand prisoners for state offences;* and which, by a *liberal* interpretation of the act of amnesty, seems inclined to satisfy the passions of all its creatures; under such a government, I say, I am not so indifferent to life and liberty, as to have hazarded the *public* expression of any political opinions whatever.'

Surely, this statement of the number of prisoners for political offences cannot be correct! Yet can Lord K. have made it lightly? We wish that it were either substantiated or withdrawn.

LAW.

Art. 31. *A Treatise on the Abuses of the Laws,* particularly in Actions by Arrest; pointing out numerous Hardships and Abuses in the different Courts, from the Commencement of an Action to its Conclusion; and the various Extortions, from the High Sheriff to the Bailiff's Follower. Together with the System of the King's Bench Prison, and the Spunging Houses, in London, Middlesex, and neighbouring Counties. Shewing also the enormous Expence Parties are put to on small Debts, the cruel Practice of bringing numerous Actions, only to increase the Costs; and the Necessity for establishing a Court in which the Tradesman can recover his small Debt. The whole tending to shew that the Arrest on common or mesne Process, as now carried on, is equally oppressive to the Plaintiff and Defendant. By James Pearce, Gent.; an Attorney of 25 Years' Practice in London, and who has served the Office of Under Sheriff of London and Middlesex. 8vo. pp. 184. 6s. Boards. Sherwood and Co.

We have here a copious bill of fare, but in which nothing is set down that is not found in the larder. On a narrative of which the good faith is evident, proceeding from the best intentions, and made for the most worthy purposes, criticism would be ill employed. The author's principal complaint respects the oppressions and extortions exercised towards persons under mesne process; and, if we may depend on the accounts here given, which are corroborated by every thing that we hear from other quarters, these are intolerable grievances, which imperiously demand redress. When an individual has the misfortune to become liable to this procedure, he seems to be placed without the pale of the constitution, and is no longer to be treated in a way that becomes the subject of a free state, but is made over to harpies who cannot be brought to account for their iniquitous deeds. Whoever will take the pains of casting his eye over this tract will readily assent to what the author says in his concluding page, viz. that he has 'pointed out imperfections, hardships, cruelties, and abuses in the execution of our laws which call loudly for interference.' With the magnitude of these evils we are deeply impressed: but we hope that they are principally confined to the metropolis, and that they would in a great degree be removed by two expedients, against the immediate application of which we see no good reason; the one, a thorough reform in the under-shrievalty of London and Middlesex; and the other, the creation of a new court for the recovery of small debts.

The High Sheriff of Middlesex, it is said, sells the office of Under-sheriff for 1500l. or 2000l.; in London, that department is filled by two secondaries, and the corporation sells the office; and at the last vacancy, we are told, they received for a secondary's place 10,200l. These deputies, in order to reimburse themselves, are induced to extort from the unfortunate persons who are under process; while their servants are obliged to adopt the same course. Such sales should be abolished; and the unfortunate persons under arrest should be made subject to charges that are certain and reasonable. That the corporation of London can allow one of its officers to sell an office, and can itself sell a department of that office, and by such corrupt transactions occasion a succession of misery to the lower ranks of its neighbours, is truly marvellous, and very little to its credit, if it be here accurately stated.

From the circumstance that, out of 5000 arrests on mesne process, not one defendant runs away from his bail, the author questions the necessity of bail, while the proposed court would render it wholly useless.

Mr. Pearce takes a wide survey of the administration of the law, and in every branch he points out abuses, for a detail of which we must refer to the work. It will amply reward the perusal of every man who desires to ameliorate the lot of a large class of his fellow-subjects, and to amend the important and valuable institutions of his country.

Art. 32. *Advice on the Study and Practice of the Law: with Directions for the Choice of Books. Addressed to Attorneys' Clerks.*

Clerks. By William Wright. Second Edition, enlarged. 8vo. pp. 180. Taylor and Hessey. 1815.

On its first appearance, we recommended this deserving tract to the attention of those to whom it was addressed, and it has now undergone considerable improvements. We are heartily glad that it has reached a second edition; since it respects a very important class of persons, into whose hands we ardently wish it may extensively fall, as containing most wholesome and seasonable advice, which cannot but prove beneficial. If it should be alleged that the attainments here proposed are too high for the rank of the parties, it may be observed that they have been realized by several individuals of this description, in times past; that, if there be a chance of any person doing this in future, the scale should not be lowered; and that, in determining its degrees, we should consider what it is to which the candidate ought to aspire, not that which he is always likely to attain; because the propriety of the former is a standard, and the probability of the latter is an ever-varying contingency.

Art. 33. *An Introduction to the Science of the Law;* shewing the Advantages of a Law-education, grounded on the Learning of Lord Coke's Commentaries upon Littleton's Tenures; or, as they are called by Way of Distinction, *The Institute*, with a View to the Bar, the Senate, or the Duties of Magistracy. By Frederic Ritso, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 241. Clarke and Sons. 1815.

Mr. Ritso laments, in strains somewhat doleful, the present plan of educating young men for the law; according to which they are to spend two or three years in a pleader's office, occupied in copying precedents, and studying Blackstone's Commentaries. He does not seem willing to be considered as insensible to the merits of that celebrated production; though, on this head, the different parts of his work are somewhat at variance with each other. He objects to the metaphysics of the chapter on the nature of law in general; imputes to the commentator a fondness for quoting *dicta* of the civil law, when appeals to the reason of things would better answer the purpose; and charges him with too scantily detailing our antient feudal polity: whence it arises (we are told) that his demonstrations of doctrines are almost always erroneous or imperfect, while he leaves untouched many important heads of the law, such as the operation of terms to protect inheritances, the construction of the usual covenants and powers in marriage-settlements, the explanation of marriage-articles, strict settlement, and the nature of the security which the parties have against the trustees in case of alienation. Even the precedent of the marriage-settlement itself is said to be inaccurate and incomplete; the usual powers of leasing, jointuring, and charging, after the limitation to the husband, being omitted; as are also cross remainders after the limitation to the daughters. Mr. Ritso elsewhere says that the Commentaries are an abstract, superficial, and often incorrect sketch of the elements of law, originally intended for unprofessional readers alone, not for students; and that they ought not to be set up as an institute for educating and forming lawyers: the most eligible way of becoming a lawyer being for a man to make himself versed in Lord Coke's Commentaries on Littleton's Tenures.

In order to see whether this representation be warranted, let us examine a little into facts. Does the succession of learned pleaders fail? Has the race diminished, or is it likely to dwindle? Is there a failure of justice in our courts from any deficiency on the bench, or from want of learned advocates? Does any question of property remain undetermined, from a want of skilful men to put it in a train to be heard? Do we hear of unjust verdicts in matters of *meum* and *tuum*? Do jurors decide wrongly when pronouncing on crimes and misdemeanours? Do magistrates commit incessant blunders in their private practice, and at their petty sessions? At our quarter-sessions, is county-business wholly at a stand, owing to the incompetence of the justices? Do no wholesome and beneficent laws emanate from our legislature? — Silence as to all complaints of this sort affords a presumption that the present plan of law-education is not so fundamentally bad as it is here depicted.

In justice to Mr. Ritso, however, it should be stated that his volume is not made up of the crude effusions of idle hours, but is an elaborate work, abounding in recondite and abstruse learning; and that he does not write on matters which he does not understand, but has taken pains to examine and has much considered the subjects of which he treats, though we are not convinced by his laboured proofs and his varied elucidations. To us, he appears to write in too complaining a tone; and we think that even our system of instruction in pleading, faulty as it is, and desirable as it would be if it required less of copying and admitted more of explanation and of reading, is here too severely arraigned. We should find it no easy matter to devise another system that would be practical, to substitute in its room. Neither can we, on any terms, consent to have Blackstone's Commentaries proscribed as a part of a lawyer's education. Were we as great enthusiasts as Mr. Ritso is in favour of the first Institute, and did we believe it to be as incumbent on professional men to study the whole of this celebrated performance as it undoubtedly is to be masters of parts of it, we should only the more insist on the perusal of Blackstone as a preliminary. What a strange thing would be a lawyer of this day who was unacquainted with Blackstone! It might be suspected that, when Mr. Ritso was speaking of that great commentator, he had De Lolme in view.

NAVAL AND MILITARY AFFAIRS.

Art. 34. *The Claims of the British Navy*, subsequent to the Termination of War with France and her Allies. By an Old Post-Captain. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Steel and Goddard. 1816.

Art. 35. *An Answer to a Pamphlet called* "The Claims of the British Navy, by an Old Post-Captain." By a Friend to the Army and Navy. 8vo. 3s. Rodwell and Martin.

Many points of great importance to the navy are discussed in these pamphlets; both of which are written with considerable ability, and merit the public attention which we believe they are receiving. It requires, however, a very correct knowlege of the *minutiæ* of the naval and the military services, a careful reference to official records, and an acquaintance with particular facts respecting individuals, to be able to judge thoroughly of the dispute, and to decide between the jarring statements of the opposing writers. Some nice distinctions must be made before the points on which each insists can be accurately comprehended; and an attention to them will sometimes shew that a representation, which the adversary strongly combats, may be reconciled with fact. The 'Old Post-Captain' writes with earnestness, perspicuity, and, we think, without that disposition to create jealousy between the army and the navy which he expressly disavows, but of which his antagonist accuses him. The latter is well acquainted with documents in naval matters, and probably occupies an official station, which may account for his warmth of replication; though it will not excuse the harsh terms which he applies to the former. The answerer, however, is surely not correct in all his points; as for instance, when he asserts, (p. 16.) 'in the army there can be no promotion to the ranks of major, captain, &c. except when vacancies occur.' Does he not here forget the promotion by brevet, and its operation in giving army-rank, though not regimental advancement? We could specify many passages in each pamphlet which are open to remark, had we time and room: but we hope that the subject will be thoroughly investigated, and that the 'Old Post-Captain' will not fail to defend himself and his brethren against his opponent; who evidently wishes to stop the discussion at once, by attempting to shew not only that no ground exists for the complaints, but that the circumstances ought to be viewed as advantages. Here he tries to prove too much.

With regard to one material point, that of old Post-Captains being passed over when they arrive at their turn for promotion to flags, though no reason *can* be assigned for such a disappointment but that they have not served within a certain period, we have long heard complaints on this subject, "loud and deep;" and we cannot conceive it possible to justify the practice, which formerly was not adopted. An officer may weary the Admiralty and himself for years with fruitless applications for employment, and may almost starve for the want of it: yet, when his seniority intitles him to his flag, the misfortune which he has long endured is converted into a crime, and aggravated by a punishment which for ever closes his hopes of distinction. This is a great evil; and it is not the less so, whether the army does or does not admit of a similar hardship. The *precise case*, we believe, it does not.

The topics here agitated are, the slowness of Promotion in the Navy, compared with the Army; Promotion in the Navy more niggardly than in the Army; Difference in the Promotion of Admirals and Generals; Partiality in the Promotion to Flags; Pensions to Widows; Mode of paying the Navy; Pensions for Wounds; Distribution of Prize-money; Droits of Admiralty; Loss of Baggage; the Half-Pay Oath; and Partiality to Army-victories in National Rewards.

As individual instances of particular facts may be adduced in either service, they should be discarded in the attempt to establish general reasonings or practices; and, in comparing the advancement of naval and military officers, examples should be taken from 20 or 30 consecutive names in each service, and in each rank.

We cannot refrain from making one observation which this subjects excites, and which does not depend on the specific questions here discussed, but will shew the importance of their being carefully considered; viz. that, let the glories of our army be what they may, the prosperity and the independence of this country can be secured only by the superiority of her navy; and that, consequently, no cause should be suffered to injure that superiority in any of its sources, — not merely in the equipment of its ships as machines, but in the *cordial zeal* and skill of the officers and men who render those machines so destructively efficient. To speak figuratively, let *the Wooden Walls of Old England* get the *Dry Rot*, and Old England itself will crumble into dust.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 36. *Observations on the Effect of the Manufacturing System:* with Hints for the Improvement of those Parts of it which are most injurious to Health and Morals. Dedicated most respectfully to the British Legislature. By Robert Owen, of New Lanark. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1815.

The name of Mr. Owen is already known to those who have bestowed any share of attention on the improvement of the morals of manufacturers, a pamphlet on that subject having been published by him three years ago, (M.R. Vol. lxxii. p. 312.) and circulated among the persons most likely to give effect to his recommendations. In our report of that tract, while we applauded the benevolence of the writer, we could not help regretting a certain disposition to vagueness and generality in his reasoning; a censure from which the pamphlet before us is in a great measure free. It is another anxious appeal to the legislature, and to the public, to come forwards and ameliorate the condition of young persons of both sexes who are engaged in manufactures. Formerly, says Mr. Owen, twelve hours daily, with proper intervals for meals, were accounted an ample degree of labour: but, at present, fourteen or fifteen hours are required, boys and girls being made to begin before day-light, and to continue their labour until eight o'clock in the evening. This severe confinement commences, not as formerly at the age of fourteen, when (early as it was) their constitutions might be in some degree formed, but at a much more tender time of life; and the consequence is that no leisure is allowed for children to take amusement and exercise in the open air, or to lay the foundation of robust health for their more mature years.

'In the manufacturing districts it is common for parents to send their children of both sexes at seven or eight years of age, in winter as well as summer, at six o'clock in the morning, sometimes of course in the dark, and occasionally amidst frost and snow, to enter the manufactories, which are often heated to a high temperature, and contain an atmosphere far from being the most favourable to human life, and in which all those employed in them very frequently continue until twelve o'clock at noon, when an hour is allowed for dinner, after which they return to remain, in a majority of cases, till eight o'clock at night.—

'Such a system of training cannot be expected to produce any other than a population weak in bodily and mental faculties, and with habits generally destructive of their own comforts.—

'The direct object of these observations is to effect the amelioration and avert the danger. The only mode by which these objects can be accomplished is to obtain an act of parliament,

'1st. To limit the regular hours of labour in mills of machinery to 12 per day, including one hour and a half for meals.

'2d. To prevent children from being employed in mills of machinery until they shall be 10 years old, or that they shall not be employed more than 6 hours per day until they shall be 12 years old.

'3d. That children of either sex shall not be admitted into any manufactory,—after a time to be named,—until they can read and write in an useful manner, understand the first four rules of arithmetic, and the girls be likewise competent to sew their common garments of clothing.'

The conditions demanded by the proposed act of parliament are so obviously just and necessary, that Mr. Owen's readers will be less disposed to call for arguments in their support than to wonder that any such enactments should be wanted. The great majority of the public are strangers to the miserable drudgery of our male and female youth in great manufactories. We can all admire the workmanship when it comes in a finished state before us; and many of us are inclined to believe that both masters and journeymen are in the receipt of liberal incomes: but those who will study the present little tract, or investigate the uncertainty of profits in this department of industry, will soon have occasion to look at this flattering picture on the dark side; will see reason to lament the extreme to which human labour has been carried; and will give their best wishes to the success of the plan now proposed for mitigating the severity of the evil.

CORRESPONDENCE.

It is not easy to develope the precise object of the letter signed *Brutus:* but we think that we shall not be deceived by it; and we are sure that we shall not be intimidated by it, or by *any* attempts for that purpose.

We hope that *P.O.E.T.I.C.U.S.* will excuse us for not recurring to the subject, or offering to our readers an interpretation which is not founded on a knowlege of its original.

J. B. B., we trust, will call his patience into a little exercise. We really have so many objects of attention, that they cannot all be fulfilled so quickly as those who are interested in them may wish.

*** The APPENDIX to Vol. LXXVIII. was published on the 1st of February, with the Review for January.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For MARCH, 1816.

ART. I. *Culloden Papers:* comprizing an extensive and interesting Correspondence from the Year 1625 to 1748; including numerous Letters from the unfortunate Lord Lovat, and other distinguished Persons of the Time; with occasional State Papers of much historical Importance. The whole published from the Originals in the Possession of Duncan George Forbes, of Culloden, Esq. To which is prefixed an Introduction, containing Memoirs of the Right Honourable Duncan Forbes, many Years Lord President of the Court of Session in Scotland. Illustrated by Engravings. 4to. pp. 539. 3l. 3s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1815.

IN the progress of our critical duties, we have been required to report several historical notices of the Rebellion of 1745, of which the last and most complete was the account given in 1802 by Mr. John Home. (See M. R. Vol. xxxviii.) Neither that gentleman, however, nor any other writer on the subject, had access to the copious materials now given to the public; which remained unnoticed and unknown till the year 1812, when they were accidentally discovered in an obscure recess of Culloden-house, by a person who was exploring the spot in question for a purpose very different from that of literary research. They had lain for many years packed up in chests, with the lumber of law-papers, family-accounts, and trivial memoranda of all dates, for a couple of centuries past; and, as they were in no kind of arrangement, it became a task of great labour to prepare them for the press. After having printed a considerable number of the letters, the editor was struck with certain chasms in the correspondence; and, being stimulated to a more eager search, he succeeded in finding a hamper of additional papers, which occupy a third part of the present volume under the title of *Addenda*. These necessarily form a separate collection, because, after having taken an impression of the first-discovered documents, any new combination of dates was not practicable. It unluckily happens, therefore, that this very interesting series cannot be read exactly in the order in which it would be most clear and attractive.

The bulk of the collection relates to the Rebellion in 1745, and to the very active part taken by the Lord President Forbes in opposing that measure. It is on this exemplary and patriotic character that the reader's attention is principally fixed: but the family of Forbes being of antient date, the book begins with documents so far back as the year 1625, the time at which the ancestor of the Lord President was a member of parliament, and Provost of Inverness. The papers are continued during the period of the Civil War and Protectorate; and among them we have, under the date of 1651 and the following years, some letters with the signature of General Monk. A document of a more valuable character is (p. 14.) "A Plan for preserving the Peace of the Highlands," written shortly after the Revolution of 1688, by the President's father. This memorial sets out by explaining the strength of aristocratic influence throughout the whole of Scotland in former ages; the gradual diminution of that influence in the low country since the Reformation and the consequent diffusion of knowlege; and its continuance in the illiterate and uncultivated districts of the Highlands. A number of the Highland chieftains being, at this time, attached to the house of Stuart, the memorialist recommended the erection of eleven small fortifications in commanding positions, which would have required, on the whole, about two thousand men to garrison them. Had this advice been followed, the country would probably have been saved the obstinate contests which took place in 1715 and 1745.

Following this memorial, we have a variety of letters and papers, the most interesting of which are of the years 1715 and 1716, when Mr. D. Forbes (afterward Lord President) had been appointed Deputy Lord Advocate for his Majesty in Scotland; an office corresponding, the necessary allowance being made for the difference of law and usage, to that of Solicitor-General in our part of the kingdom. He was now in his thirtieth year, having been born in 1685, and educated, in consequence of his being a younger son, for the study of the law. His personal respectability, the tried loyalty of his family, and the interest of his elder brother, then member of parliament for Inverness, had all concurred to place him at an early age in a station particularly calculated to bring him into notice, and to pave the way to farther honours. His brother resigning his seat in parliament in 1722, he succeeded to it, and in 1725 became Lord Advocate, a station of great importance with regard to local improvements; the office of Secretary of State for Scotland being by this time abolished, and the correspondence for that department transferred to the

Lord Advocate; and our northern neighbours, though not quite so backward as the editor of this collection represents them, (Introduction, p. 15.) certainly being, a century ago, in a very different state from that in which we now see them, in point of literature, agriculture, and trade. Mr. F. took a very active part in promoting the linen-manufacture, in opening the country by roads, in extending the fisheries, and in favouring productive industry at large; all which attention to the duties of office was combined with great urbanity and liberality in private intercourse. His annual visits to London brought him in connection with the most distinguished characters in political as well as literary life; and among the latter we may mention Thomson the poet, who was much indebted to his friendship in the day of obscurity, and who has recorded his gratitude in the following lines of his *Autumn*:

> " Thee, Forbes, too, whom every worth attends,
> As truth sincere, as weeping friendship kind;
> Thee, truly generous, and in silence great,
> Thy country feels through her reviving arts,
> Plann'd by thy wisdom, by thy soul inform'd;
> And seldom has she known a friend like thee."

Mr. Forbes, when in parliament, generally supported the measures of Sir R. Walpole; a course which, now that the public is satisfied of the good intention and sound policy of most of that minister's plans, is less liable to the suspicion of calculation than in the days when reflection was silenced by the overpowering eloquence of Pulteney and Chatham. The short intervals remaining for retirement were passed by Mr. F. at a country-seat in the neighbourhood of the family-mansion of Culloden; where he contrived to preserve the command of his time and his habits of temperance, among a set of neighbours who accounted it indispensable to hospitality to indulge in excesses which, fortunately, are now out of fashion. His elder brother appears from the subsequent passage in a letter to have been a determined adherent of the old school:

' " There lives in our neighbourhood, at a house or castle, called Culloden, a gentleman whose hospitality is almost without bounds. It is the custom of that house, at the first visit or introduction, to take up your freedom by cracking his nut (as he terms it); that is, a cocoa shell, which holds a pint, filled with champaign, or such other sort of wine as you shall choose. You may guess, by the introduction, at the contents of the volume. Few go away sober at any time; and for the greatest part of his guests, in the conclusion they cannot go at all.

' " This he partly brings about by artfully proposing, after the public healths, (which always imply bumpers,) such private ones as he knows will pique the interest or inclination of each particular person of the company whose turn it is to take the lead, to begin it in a brimmer; and he himself being always cheerful, and sometimes saying good things, his guests soon lose their guard, and then—I need say no more."

Such a mode of life was not favourable to longevity, and the demise of his elder brother in 1734 rendered Mr. Forbes the possessor of the patrimonial estate. Another, and in the eye of the public a more important succession, was to the presidency of the great civil tribunal of Scotland, the Court of Session, an appointment which became vacant in 1737. The last president having long been infirm, the public expectation had been fixed on Mr. Forbes; and great satisfaction was produced at Edinburgh on the arrival of his letter of appointment. The only apprehension was lest his predilection for study and retirement, joined to a delicate state of health, should prevent him from undertaking an office of responsibility and fatigue: but his sense of duty prevailed over the considerations of personal convenience. So firmly was he bent on an impartial administration of justice, that, on his installation, he repeated twice, with ardour, the part of the oath relative to it; and he seldom failed to prepare his brother-judges, in any case in which he suspected the influence of prejudice, by a solemn and impressive appeal to their consciences. His talents and authority had the effect of abridging the arguments that were common on a bench which was filled, at that time, by fifteen judges; and they accomplished what was more difficult, a discharge of the mass of arrears before the court. Those who know the miserable accumulation, even in our own days, in the Court of Session, will learn with surprize that President Forbes passed sentence in the first session on actions which had been twenty years before the court; and that he was some time afterward enabled to declare, on closing a term, that not a "single cause ripe for hearing remained for decision."

Amid all his judicial labours, the President contrived to bestow attention on other subjects; and we find him taking an active part in the recommendation of measures connected with the quiet of the Highlands, in the beginning of the war of 1740. Spain was then our only opponent: but it could not be doubted that she would be joined by a power which was likely to seek the means of annoying the British government, by exciting an insurrection among the Highlanders in behalf of the Stuarts. Of the ultimate issue of such an attempt, the President could entertain no fear: but he was distressed at the prospect of the ruin which it would draw down on misguided families; and, although his ancestors had suffered greatly by the hostility of those who would thus bring punishment on themselves, he considered such contests as *bella nullos habitura triumphos*. Moreover, he attributed the existing discontents among the Highlanders not so much to a direct attachment to the Pretender or his family, as to disappointment at not being employed and entrusted by Government in military service, and thus being cut off from that career to which of all others their habits and hereditary prejudices prompted them to aspire. His Lordship, therefore, proposed to ministers (see M. R. Vol. xxxviii. p. 4.) a scheme for raising five thousand men in the Highlands, on the plan of giving commissions to the chiefs of clans and other men of influence. Sir R. Walpole approved the scheme, but was unable to prevail on his political friends to second it, under the apprehension that the opposition would succeed in representing it in the light of an attempt on public liberty; and the result was that this simple and effectual plan was not carried into execution, until the superior authority of Lord Chatham and the successes of the war of 1756 increased the influence of the executive power.

The French, having joined the Spaniards in the war, prepared in 1743 to embark a body of troops at Brest, for the purpose of invading the west of Scotland or England: but this design was relinquished in the spring of 1744, partly from the effects of a storm, and partly from the necessity of making a grand effort in Flanders. The superiority, however, which was acquired by Marshal Saxe after the battle of Fontenoy, (11th May 1745,) induced the Pretender to attempt, on his own resources, that which he could no longer hope to obtain from the aid of France. In the month of July, accounts being received by Government that the Pretender's eldest son, Charles Edward, had gone on board a sloop in a French port with the view of proceeding to Scotland, President Forbes immediately made arrangements for leaving Edinburgh, and going (see p. 204.) to the Highlands, in the hope of lessening, by his presence, the extent of the apprehended defection. He took this step in the middle of August, and had scarcely arrived at his family-seat at Culloden when he received intelligence that the Prince had not only landed, but that, after having been some weeks *incognito*, he had set up his standard in Lochaber.

Charles Edward had embarked, July 14. at Port Lazare in Brittany, on board an armed vessel, having with him nearly thirty adherents, Irish and Scotish, and about 900 stand of arms. A French ship of 64 guns, understood to be laden with arms and ammunition, sailed with him: but, falling in with an English ship of 58 guns, she was obliged, after an obstinate engagement, to return to Brest. Charles pursued his voyage, and reached the coast of Lochaber on the 25th of July. We have mentioned in another place (M. R. Vol. xxxviii. p. 5.) the difficulty which he found in prevailing with any of the Highland chiefs to embark in so desperate an undertaking; and it was only by an appeal to their sympathy, and by promises of speedy assistance from France, that he persuaded Cameron of Lochiel and a few others to declare in his favour, and to hoist his standard on the 19th of August in the neighbourhood of Fort William. Hostilities had begun a few days before, by an attack from a division of Highlanders on three companies of regulars in march to Fort Augustus; who, after some resistance, were obliged to surrender. The next accounts transmitted to the President contained a more specific statement of the rebel force:

‘ *Mr. Thomas Fraser of Gortuleg to the Lord President.*

‘ My Lord, Gortuleg, 29^{th} Aug^{t} 1745.

‘ I wrote to Lord Lovat yesterday Morning from this place; wherein I told his Lordship, that I had occasion to see Lochiel, and some others of that Army, Tuesday, when they lay near Fort Augustus; and gave a true account of their number, which still is not above 2000; and I recommended to Lord Lovat to let your Lordship know this, and what I then judged was their resolution.

‘ This morning I am informed, that yesterday they set out early from Aberchalder, and came, before Seven in the Morning, to a place called Lagganvane, four Miles from Fort Augustus, and at the foot of Coriyarack; that then they were assured of Sir John Cope's marching by Ruthven to Inverness. That immediately they called a Council of war; and the resolution taken was, to pursue General Cope with all Expedition; that their whole Army was at Garviemore about 12 o'Clock; and that they were resolved to march by Night & by Day until they came up with their Enemy. I am assured, that their young forward Leader *called for his Highland Cloaths; and that, at tying the latchets of his shoes, he solemnly declared that he would be up with Mr. Cope before they were unloosed.*'—

‘ *Strength of Rebell Army.*

‘ A True Account of the Numbers of the Highland Army, Tuesday, 27^{th} Aug^{st} 1745.

Lochiel - - - - - - - - - -	700
Clanranald, having Men of his Islanders - -	250
The Stewarts of Appin, commanded by Ardsheal -	220
Keappoch - - - - - - -	260
Glengarry's Men, including Knoidart, Glenco, and Glenmorriston - - - - - -	600
	2,030'

From this time forwards, his Lordship had not an hour of leisure, being incessantly occupied in seeing or corresponding with the heads of families of influence in the Highlands; urging on them the certainty of the eventual failure of the expedition, and the importance to them and their posterity of avoiding all participation in such a cause. All his letters breathe ardent loyalty, and warm solicitude for the welfare of his countrymen. He was by this time in his sixtieth year, known personally to almost every man of rank in Scotland, and equally venerated for his judgment and his integrity. All looked up with confidence to his opinion; and all placed implicit faith in the sincerity of his engagements. The consequence was that several of the clans, who had been neglected by Government, and were considered as ripe for insurrection, remained quietly at home, while others were induced to take the field on the side of loyalty. The President obtained from ministers authority to raise and distribute commissions for twenty independent companies; and the choice of officers, which he made, no doubt prevented many gallant but thoughtless youths from being seduced by the insurgents. Some arms and money were sent to him from London, as we shall see presently: but, as his exertions went far beyond the expectation of Government, he found it necessary to meet the exigency by drawing on his own property. The first act of his Majesty's ministers had been to instruct the commanding officer in Scotland, Sir John Cope, to march in the direction of the apprehended insurection: but they had, as usual on such occasions, been embarrassed by contradictory and exaggerated accounts:

'*The Marquis of Tweeddale (Secretary of State) to the Lord President.*

'My Lord, Whitehall, 24 August 1745.

'Since my last to your Lordship of the 17th instant, there have been transmitted to me, from Sir John Cope, and others of his Majesty's Servants in Scotland, several pieces of intelligence so very extraordinary, that they did not gain the least credit with me; and yesterday I received a letter from Sir John Cope, with a copy of one from you to him, dated from Culloden, the 15th, late at night, which confirms what little credit ought to have been given to the various reports he had heard before that date. If Sir John Cope shews your Lordship the letters I have wrote to him, since the first of this alarm, you will, I hope, see that they all tend to one point; viz^t^ his marching immediately with a body of troops towards Fort Augustus, as the most effectual means to deter the disaffected from assembling, and to prevent a set of loose and disorderly people from threatening with ruin and destruction those of their neighbours who will not concur with them in such desperate mad measures.

‘I am glad to find that Sir John Cope has at last begun his march; for I must own in confidence to your Lordship, that there appears to me to have been some unnecessary delay in this matter. In my own opinion, I can have no notion but that Sir John, even with the few forces he has, keeping them in a body, and going directly to the place pointed at, will be able to quell very soon any insurrections that have or may happen; especially as we have no reason as yet to think that they are like to be supported by any debarkation of foreign troops.

‘Your Lordship's said letter to him is written with so much good sense, and so agreeable to the character of the man who truly wishes well to his King and Country, that I hope your Lordship will continue to give him your advice often; and w^{h} I hope he will pay a due regard to. I must likewise beg to hear frequently from you.’

‘*Sir John Cope to the Lord President.*

‘My Lord, Trinifuir, 24th Aug^{t} 1745.

‘I have just now rec^{d} your letter of the 20th August.

‘The great quantity of provision, ammunition, & artillery, I have along with me has made it impossible for me to make stronger marches than I have done, without leaving men or provisions behind me. I have been marching from five o'clock this morning, & fear from the horses being very weak, the provisions for the men will not arrive till ten or eleven at night; so that whether I shall be able to march from hence, or not, to-morrow, I cannot yet determine. The men are well and in high spirits, & I doubt not but I shall keep them so.’

The President answered Sir John Cope on the 26th of August, and mentioned (p. 388.) that the Highlanders seemed disposed to wait for him on the north side of a mountain called Cori-arich, in precipitous and boggy ground, where cavalry could not act; and he reminded the General that the Highlanders could easily cut up the road in his front, so as to stop the progress of his artillery. Before the receipt of this letter, however, Sir John had judged it expedient to avoid penetrating farther to the westward, and had inclined to the right on the way to Inverness.

‘*Sir John Cope to the Lord President.*

‘My Lord, Ruthwin, Aug^{t} 27th, 1745.

‘The reason of my coming here shall be fully explained to your Lordship when I have the honour to see you. — I bend my course directly to Inverness. — The accounts of the enemy vary extremely as to numbers, but not as to situation. — Their whole plan, by all we can learn, has been to wait for us at and near the Corriarick Hill, where they expected us to-morrow. What turn next they will take is at present very uncertain; but I am hopeful their followers, when they are apprehensive that all their dwellings may be destroyed if they venture southward, may leave them; and our troops being here, may raise the spirits of our friends.

I have ordered more arms, &c. to Inverness, as likewise biscuit and other provisions. 5000 arms are coming from London; and some, if not all the garrison that came out of Ostend, being 5 good battalions, are actually on board for Leith. This I can take upon me to assure you to be true by the last good authority I had from London.'—

' *The Lord President to Sir J. Cope.*

' Dear Sir, Culloden, 28 August, 10 at night.

' So soon as I received your's of yesterday's date, from Ruthven, I dispatch'd messengers to Lord Fortrose & Lord Lovat, who have both given assurance of their assistance. What I press'd them to, was, the bringing immediately together as many as they can arm, & the prepareing others to receive arms, which are soon expected. Their answers you shall soon be acquainted with; but their assistance is hardly to be depended on for immediate service.—Concerning the numbers of the Highlanders, I know nothing further than what you have in my last; their situation, by what I can learn, is more easterly, towards Corryyarrig, with ane intent, as they pretended, to meet & surprize you. What course they will take, upon your altering your route, is uncertain. You do not mention when you propose to leave the Spey; & I presume you have considered what is to be done in case they, leaving their miserable huts to mercy, should resolve to pass the Corryyarig, & march southwards. But it seems to be fitting that you acquaint us, without loss of time, & in such way as that the advice cannot come into the enemy's hands, what course you propose to take; &, as nearly as can be guess'd, when; to the end, any thing that can be done in this corner may answer it.'

Although Sir J. Cope was an officer of moderate talents, it can scarcely be doubted that in avoiding a conflict in the mountains he acted with judgment.

' *The Lord President to Lord Harrington,* (*Secretary of State.*)

' My Lord, Inverness, 3d Sept.

' It is the difficulty of the situation in which I find myself that obliges me to give you the trouble of this letter. About 3 weeks ago I flung myself into this country to try how far any share of credit which I had with people could preserve them in their duty & prevent their madness; & I had no unconsiderable success, tho' I had not what I wish'd. But I was astonish'd to hear, that after the rebells had got together to a head, Sir John Cope, with a handfull of troops, had been ordered into the mountains to attack and disperse them; & that he had actually engaged himself so far, as to reach the Spey, & to be within a few hours march of them. My concern grew, as I was perfectly well acquainted with the passes of Corryyarig, over which he must pass if he would go the direct road to Fort Augustus, & which, by a very small body of clever Highlanders, who should mar the roads and break down the bridges, could be easily defended against a much greater force than he commanded. And I was relieved from my apprehensions only upon finding that he turn'd to the right, & by forced marches reach'd this place Thursday last, at night. It was unlucky that his orders engaged him to come so far north, which has given ane opportunity to the rebells to seize the passes of the mountains betwixt Badenoch & Atholl, & to march southward, where it is not easie to determine what mischief they might do.'

The error of this General consisted in not falling back on Perth and the low country, so as to cover Edinburgh, and to prevent the occupancy, by the rebels, of harbours on the east coast from which they might hold communication with France. The intelligence of the course which he had taken produced the following advice to Government, from a veteran General at that time in London:

' *Mem. concerning the Rebellion in Scotland.*

' [Apparently addressed by Lord Stair to the Ministry.]

' S^r^ John Cope, by marching towards Inverness from Dalwhiny, where he was Master of both the branches of the made Road, one of w^ch^ goes to Inverness the other to Fort Augustus, has given an opportunity to the Rebels, w^ch^ they have taken, of marching towards Blair; by w^ch^ means it is apprehended that the Rebels may make themselves Masters of Edinburgh, &^c^ before S^r^ John Cope can return to oppose them. The question is, what is proper to be done in this case?

' It is humbly proposed in the first place, to grant a number of blank Commissions, to be distributed among the well-affected Clanns, as the Lord President of the Session, &^c^ shall think proper. Such a number of Highlanders, being formed into regular Companies, will be in a condition not only to hinder more Men to be raised for the Pretender's service, but a part of them may go and live at discretion in the Countrys which the Rebels have left.'—

' It is next to be considered, that by taking proper precaution it may be rendered very difficult for the Rebels to pass the Forth.'

' If the Rebels should pass, they must consume some time in their march to Edinburgh, and in making the necessary dispositions for attacking it. Such necessary delays will probably give S^r^ John Cope time to arrive before the Rebels can make themselves Masters of Edinburgh; as Sir John Cope's march will at all times be free & uninterrupted, he being Master of Stirling Bridge.

' But supposing that S^r^ John Cope should not arrive in time, & that the Rebels should be Masters of Ed^r^, and march into England before his arrival, & even supposing that the Highlanders should be joined by an Invasion from France, it will be proper to consider what force there is in England to resist the Enemy in that case.

' There are now in England four Battall. of Guards; four other Battall.; besides three to be formed of the additional Companies.

There are now actually embarked at Williamstadt five Batt^{ns} of Dutch Troops, of w^{ch} one is to go to Scotland; the four w^{ch} come into England are to be instantly followed by three more Battallions. With these seven Batt.: of Dutch added to eleven British, with two Reg^{ts} of Horse & three of Dragoons, L^{d} Stair thinks he can answer for the quelling of this Rebellion.

'If it should be thought expedient to make use of any other helps, such as raising a number of Batt. in the north of Ireland, or in indulging any of the considerable people in G.B. well affected to the Governm^{t} to raise Regiments, it is certain that such precautions will not be useless, nor the money ill employed; for next Spring there will be opportunity to make use of those forces against France, in such a manner as may be both honorable and advantageous to G.B. & very hurtful to France.'

When Sir John Cope arrived at Inverness, and was apprized that the rebels were marching southwards, he took the determination of proceeding in the same direction along the coast, in the hope of reaching Edinburgh before them. With that view, he ordered round some transports from Leith to Aberdeen, and they fortunately arrived at the latter place on the same day (11th of September) on which his troops marched in from the north. In the mean time, the President became extremely desirous of procuring from London the arms and money which were necessary to put in motion the well-affected Highlanders in his neighbourhood.

'*Extract of a Letter from the Lord President to Lord Harrington, dated Inverness, 3d September.*

'The greatest part of the chieftains are quiet, & disposed to be so; nay, some of them most certainly desirous to shew their zeal for the Gov^{t}; but they are all unarm'd; there is no authority to bring them, or any number of their men, together, & there is neither money nor credit to support any body of them whom it might be thought proper to bring together for his Maj$^{tie's}$ service. I made this remonstrance to my Ld. Marquis of Tweeddale before I left Ed^{r}, in my journey hither, & now I renew it to your Lõp.; to the end your Lõp. may consider what is fit to be done. Had we been provided with these three things ten days ago, matters would not have been in the condition in which they are at present. If we are speedily supply'd, the peace of this part of the country will be secured, & the rebells' views of gathering any further forces in the north prevented; if we are not, every thing must be left to chance; & I cannot say what influence is to be expected from praying and preaching only, which is all that will be left me to do.'

The progress of the rebels on this occasion, and the terror excited throughout the kingdom, have justly been matter of great surprize: but how much more important would the effects have been, had the whole of the Highlanders co-operated with the Pretender? Fortunately, the two most numerous clans in the west, the Macleods and the Macdonalds, remained stedfast in their adherence to Government; and the subsequent letters evinced a similar determination on the part of two of the principal leaders to the north of Inverness.

'*Lord Reay to the Lord President.*

'My Lord, Tongue, in Caithness, 30th August.

'I'm extremly glad your Lõp. is in the North at this time, when your advise and assistance can be of such service to the Government.

'When I first got such intelligence of the insurrection in the West Highlands as I could give credit to, I wrote immediately to S^{r} Jn^{o} Cope, that I and my clan were ready to do all in our power for the support of the present Government; but that we wanted arms & ammunition; which is so far the case, that without a supply of these, we could scarcely defend the passes of our own properties, in case of attempts to carry off our cattle or so. I believe my letter did not overtake S^{r} Jn^{o} Cope ere he left Edin^{r}; nor may he, as he is a stranger in Scotland, know or advert to the necessity of our having arms, &^{c}. Therefore, as your Lõp. is well acquainted with him, and as, no doubt, he'l have the greater regard to your judgment, I beg leave to give your Lõp. the trouble of this, that you may be so good as to take your own method to lay our situation before him. Your Lõp. knows that in the year 1715 what effect the junction of the people of this country with the well-affected in Ross and Inverness shires had; so far as it helped to divide our enemies; and perhaps it may be necessary to play the same game over again.'—

'*The Earl of Sutherland to the Lord President.*

'My Lord, Dunrobin, Sep^{tbr} 11th, 1745.

'From the time Sir John Cope came to Inverness, I had 200 men readie to joine the King's forces. Of this I acquainted Sir John; and also, that I would join him myself with 400 more, if His Majesty's service required it. I acquainted him, at the same time, that the few arms I had must be kep't for the defence of the country against some wrong-headed neighbours, whose inclinations to rebellion I had strong reasons to suspect; and desir'd that he would order arms for the men he might have occasion to call from this countrie.

'I had his answer by Major Mackay only last night, that he had left some arms at Inverness, and that he desired your Lõp. to distribute them as His Majesty's service required. Your Lõp. knows the attachment of my family to His Majestie and the present establishment; and, as the arms that are in the north are under your direction, I hope your Lõp. will put me in a condition, by arming my people, to render effectual service to His Majesty.'

During this interval, the rebel force, increased by recruits from Athol to 4000 men, advanced to Perth, and found little difficulty in crossing the Forth in their way to Edinburgh. It was now that the bad effects of Cope's march to the north became evident; the capital of Scotland, though full of loyalty, being by no means in a state to make effectual resistance; and, to complete the public mortification, the Lord Provost was not deemed cordial in the cause of Government. We subjoin an extract of a letter from a character well known in the annals of literature, Professor Maclaurin:

> 'As soon as the Danger from the Rebells seem'd imminent, I left the Country & continued in Town, endeavouring to promote the spirit that began to appear amongst the Gentlemen, in hopes it would have been raised likewise amongst the burghers & trades. I was amongst the first Volunteers, & signed for a Dozen of the Town's Regiment. The Care of the Walls was recommended to me, in which I laboured night & day, under infinite discouragements from superior powers. When I was promised hundreds of Workmen, I could hardly get as many dozens; this was daily complained of; redress was promised; but till the last two days no redress was made; and then it was late. However, the Town was in a Condition to have stood out two or three days against Men unprovided with Artillery, unskilful, & then ill armed; and there was a double expectation of relief; viz. from the Dutch, & Sir John Cope. On the fatal Monday I was loading the Cannon at the west port, & pressing the finishing of some works there, when, in a pack'd Meeting (400 Volunteers, mostly substantial burghers, being under Arms elsewhere), it carried to capitulate. When I heard of this, I called for the P—t for orders what I should do with the Cannon. The answer was, he had not time to speak to me. The case [which] had been often put to the Pr—t actually happened; for, Cope was off Dunbar, and could have been up on the Wednesday. The Monday Night, neither were the Town's Arms carried to the Castle, nor did the Town stand on its defence till terms were granted; and therefore they had none, tho' by *****'s Message it had been offered, that no Highlander should enter the Town; but there was a plain collusion.'

Much as we respect the authority of Professor M., we are inclined to ascribe the early surrender of the capital not to want of loyalty but to an apprehension of pillage or massacre from the rude assailants encamped under its walls; and it is proper to observe that the money of the banks, with the most valuable effects of the inhabitants, had been previously carried to the castle, which was secure from the attack of an enemy that was unprovided with artillery. Unluckily, the possession of Edinburgh and Leith enabled the Highlanders to increase their scanty stock of arms, and encouraged them to march out to meet Cope's troops, which had now landed from the north. The numbers on both sides were nearly equal, viz. about 4,000, but the royal troops were much better provided with artillery and stores. The Highland chieftains resorted to that plan of sudden onset, which had proved so successful to their forefathers when led on by the Marquis of Montrose and Lord Dundee. Having marched before day-break, they attacked the dragoons unexpectedly, drove them back on the infantry, pushed on regardless of the fire of the artillery, and, being much superior in the use of the sword to soldiers who were accustomed to the musket, carried the field of battle in a few minutes. Of the foot, nearly 500 were killed, and 1500 taken prisoners; Cope made a precipitate retreat with the dragoons; and the military chest, cannon, colours, camp-equipage, and baggage, all fell into the hands of the rebels.

Such was the action of Preston-pans, fought on the 21st of September 1745. Nothing could have happened of a more vexatious nature with regard to the arrangements of the President with the undecided clans in the Highlands.

'*The Lord President to the Marquis of Tweeddale.*

'My Lord, 3^{d} Oct^{r} 1745.

'At the date of my last, which was the 20^{th} of Sept^{r}, tho' there was no money to bring or keep any number of men together, yet such was the authority of the Gentlemen who were disposed to support the Government, that nobody of any consequence pretended to stir or join the Highlanders who had pass'd the mountains in their way southward; and if those adventurers had not met with some unlook'd for successes, the same tranquillity would still have prevailed. But so soon as the rebells had got possession of Ed^{r}, & that event was follow'd by the more unexpected success in the action near it, it is not to be conceived with what celerity those incidents blew up the hopes of the unthinking who wish'd for a revolution.'—

'It may, my Lord, unless you have got my former letters, be surprising to you, that under the favour of the credite which your Lõp. acquaints me I have upon Mr. Pelham & the Paymaster Gen^{ll}. no money can be raised; but that surprize will cease when you are told, that bank notes are not, by reason of the present commotion, current; that the little coin that is, is lock'd up; so that the man of best credit in this country cannot command a shilling; that bills on Ed^{r} or London are of no value; partly, as no payments are made at Ed^{r}; & partly, as there is no secure method of correspondence with either of the places.'

'*The Lord President to Mr. (afterwards Sir Andw.) Mitchell.*

'My Dear Andrew, 13 Nov^{r}, 1745.

'When I came first into this Country, tho' I was not just treading in the path of a Chief Justice, the prospect was very flattering,

& the errand I came on had no appearance of difficulty; but the Rebells' successes at Edr & Prestonpans soon changed the scene. All Jacobites, how prudent soever, became mad; all doubtfull people became Jacobites; & all Bankrupts became heroes, & talk'd of nothing but hereditary rights & victory; &, what was more grievous to men of gallantry, & if you will believe me much more mischievous to the publick, all the fine Ladys, if you will except one or two, became passionately fond of the young Adventurer, & used all their Arts & Industry for him in the most intemperate manner. Under these circumstances, I found myself almost alone, without Troops, without Arms, without money or credite; provided with no means to prevent extream folly, except pen & ink, a tongue, & some reputation; & if you will except Mac Leod, whom I sent for from the Isle of Sky, supported by nobody of common sense or courage. Had Arms & money come when they were first call'd for, befor these unexpected successes blew up folly to madness, I could have answered it with my head, that no Man from the North should have join'd the original flock of Rebells that pass'd the Forth.'

The action at Preston-pans produced a very serious effect on the conduct of Lord Lovat, whose character and history are so remarkable as to call for a separate and rather a minute notice, particularly since he fills by far the most conspicuous place in the present collection. His patrimonial estate was not distant from that of Culloden; and we trace in the letters now published a correspondence, more or less active, between him and the representatives of the family of Forbes during the long period of fifty years. It begins (pp. 23, 24.) in the year 1697, soon after the time at which Lovat, then known only as Simon Frazer, attempted to secure his succession to the property and title of head of the clan, by a forcible marriage with (or rather a seizure of the person of) the dowager Lady Lovat. He protests in these letters that Lady Lovat had become disposed to view him favourably: but the case was judged very differently by Government, and this desperate adventurer found it expedient to leave the kingdom in order to avoid a criminal prosecution. He lived afterward in a great measure at Paris, professing to serve but ready in fact to betray the Stuarts. A blank accordingly takes place in his correspondence with the family of Forbes, until the year 1715; when, considering the Hanoverian succession as likely to be confirmed, he found means to be recommended (p. 336.) to Government, and made use of all his hereditary influence with his clan to bring them back from the rebellion. That he rendered service on this occasion admits of no doubt: but his motives were merely to enrich himself at the expence of his neighbours. " If you suffer Glengary, Frazerdale, or Chisholm to be pardoned," (he writes to Mr. Forbes, p. 41.) "I will never more carry a musquet under your command." Having afterward obtained leave to go to London, and to be presented to his Majesty, he wrote the following letter on the 23d of June 1716, complimenting Mr. F. with a military title, in consideration of the active part which he had taken in the late operations.

'*Lord Lovat to Mr. Duncan Forbes.*

'My dearest General,

'I got both your Letters, & I follow y^r advice closs. I had a privat audience of K. George this day; and I can tell you, dr General, yt no man ever spoke freer langage to his Majesty & y^e Prince than I did of our two great frnds, in letting y^m know y^t they did y^m more service & were capable to do y^m more service than all those of y^r Ranks in Scotland: & yt is true. I hope what I said will be usefull; & let it have what effect it will as to me, I am overjoyd to have occasion to serve y^e two pretiest fellows in Europe.'—

'The King is one of the best men on earth; but strangly imposed upon by certain persons. I hope it will not be allways so. —The King has been graciously pleased to grant me, this very day, a Gift of Fraserdale's Escheat; & M^r Stanhope told me, y^t I was so well in His Majesty's spirit, y^t all my Enemys are not able to do me harm.

'I spoke to the Duke & my L^d Ilay about my marriage, & told y^m y^t one of my greatest motifs to y^t design was, to secure y^m y^e joint interest of y^e north. They are both fully for it, & the Duke is to speak of it & propose it to the King.'

The particulars of the attainder of the property of Frazerdale are more fully explained in a subsequent paper; and the final results of the exertions of this intriguer were the recovery of his patrimonial lands, and the acquisition of the title of Lord Lovat. These he continued to enjoy during a number of years, in the midst of his vassals; and, at the beginning of the disturbances of 1745, he had nearly attained the age of eighty. The President had made a point of having an interview with him, (p. 372.) on the first receipt of the intelligence of the landing of the Pretender.

'*Extract of a letter from President Forbes, dated Culloden, 15th August* 1745.

'This day the Lord Lovat came to dine with me. He said, he had heard with uneasiness the reports that were scattered abroad; but that he look'd on the attempt as very desperate; that tho' he thought himself but indifferently used lately, in taking his company from him, yet his wishes still being, as well as his interest led him, to support the present Royal Family; that he had lain absolutely still, & quiet, lest his stirring in any sort might have been misrepresented or misconstructed; & he said, his business with me was, to be advised what was proper to be done on this occasion. I approved greatly of his disposition, & advised him, untill the scene should open a little, to lay himself out to gain the most certain intelligence he could come at, which the situation of his clan will enable him to execute, & to prevent his kinsmen from being seduced by their mad neighbours; which he readily promised to do.'

A frequent intercourse by letter was kept up between his Lordship and the President, with every appearance of cordiality, until the advance of the rebel-forces to Edinburgh (pp. 222. 229.); after which we find the latter giving his aged neighbour some broad hints of the reports current to his prejudice. In fact, Lord Lovat and the Earl of Cromarty began now to consider the chances as balanced, and to act in such a manner as to acquire a claim on the Pretender's favour in the event of success. They both persisted, however, (p. 332.) in opposing the most positive denial to the rumours circulated against them. — In the midst of these unpleasant occurrences, and the still more unpleasant reports of insurrection in England and invasion from France, a nocturnal attempt was made (p. 230.) on Culloden Castle by certain individuals of the clan of Frazer: but the President was on his guard, and had even several pieces of cannon mounted on the walls. Lovat professed the greatest indignation at the outrage, but was suspected, both in his own neighbourhood and in London, to have been the secret abettor of the attempt. " I am morally certain," says Sir Andrew Mitchell in a letter from London, (p. 253.) " that without the consent, or perhaps contrivance of a certain person whom no ties can bind, nor no favours oblige, that clan had never dared to endeavour to seize your person."

In the beginning of the insurrection, Lord Lovat had demanded arms, and strongly urged the defenceless state of his district; expressing the greatest apprehension lest the rebels should pour into it and force his people to join, by burning their huts and laying waste their lands. Now that the insurgents had marched southward, and that the plea of compulsory service could be no longer alleged, he urged the contagion of example among his clan, and the impatience of his son to join the standard of the prince. It is amusing to see (pp. 234. 236.) with what assurance this veteran delinquent repeatedly complains of the undutiful conduct of his son and of the ferment among his tenants, and protests his own solicitude to withdraw from so disagreeable a scene. At last, it became expedient for the President to drop reserve, and to apprize his

Lordship that the representatives of government were not duped by his double dealing. We copy portions of the letters:

' *The Lord President to Lord Lovat.*

' My Lord, Inverness, Oct. 29. 1745.

' As I have now the honour of being charg'd with the public affairs in this part of the kingdom, I can no longer remain a spectator of your Lordship's conduct, and see the double game you have play'd for some time past, without betraying the trust reposed in me, and at once risquing my reputation, and the fidelity I owe to his Majesty as a good subject. Your Lordship's actions now discover evidently your inclinations, and leave us no further in the dark about what side you are to choose in the present unhappy insurrection: you have now so far pull'd off the mask, that we can see the mark you aim at; tho' on former occasions you have had the skill and address to disguise your intentions in matters of far less importance.—But so far has your Lordship been from acting with your ordinary finesse and circumspection on this occasion, that you sent away your son and the best part of your clan to join the Pretender, with as little concern as if no danger had attended such a step: I say, sent them away; for we are not to imagine they went of themselves, or would have ventured to take arms without your Lordship's concurrence and approbation: this, however, you are pretty sure can't be easily proved, which, I believe indeed, may be true. But I can't think it will be a difficult matter to make it appear, that the whole strain of your Lordship's conversation in every company where you have appeared, since the Pretender's arrival, has tended to pervert the minds of his Majesty's subjects, and seduce them from their allegiance.—And I am sorry to tell you, my Lord, that I could sooner undertake to plead the cause of any one of those unhappy gentlemen, who are just now actually in arms against his Majesty, and I could say more in defence of their conduct, than I could in defence of your Lordship's. The Duke of Perth and Lord Ogilvy never qualify'd, nor did they ever receive the smallest favour from the present Government; but, on the contrary, were both strip'd of their titles and honours, and from men of the first quality reduced to the state of private gentlemen, since the Revolution, and may both be supposed to act from a principle of resentment, and only took up arms to recover what they thought themselves unjustly depriv'd of. Lord George Murray never had any place or pension from the public, and was, no doubt, drawn in by the influence of the Marquis of Tullibardin; perhaps, touch'd with pity and commiseration for his eldest brother, who has spent the best part of his life in exile, and undoubtedly upon an allowance much inferior to his dignity. These, and such like apologies, may be offer'd in defence of most of the leading men in the present rebellion; but what shall I say in favour of you, my Lord? You, who have flourish'd under the present happy establishment? You, who, in the beginning of your days, forfeited both your life and fortune, and yet, by the benignity of the Government, was not only indulg'd the liberty of living at home, but even restor'd to all you could lay claim to: nay, his Majesty's goodness went so far as to employ your Lordship in his service, and was pleased to honour you with the command of one of the independent companies that were raised some years ago in the Highlands, which you enjoy'd for a very long time: so that both duty and gratitude ought to have influenced your Lordship's conduct, at this critical juncture, and disposed you to have acted a part quite different from what you have done. But there are some men whom no duty can bind, nor no favour can oblige. — What I would therefore propose to your Lordship, as the only expedient left to rescue you from the hazard of a rigorous prosecution, is, to recall your son and his men immediately. This step, I'm persuaded, would produce several good consequences; for, on the one hand, it would prevent numbers from joining the rebels, who now hang in suspence, and, on the other, occasion a great many of those already engaged to desert and retire to their respective habitations. — If you shall judge it proper, my Lord, to follow this advice, it will give me a great deal of pleasure; as it will contribute to stop the progress of an unhappy civil war, that threatens us with endless calamities; but if your Lordship continues obstinate, and will not order your men to disband and return home, I shall be obliged to take you into custody, be the event what it will.'

' *Lord Lovat to the Lord President.*

' My dear Lord, 30th October 1745.

' I received the honour of your Lōp.'s letter late last night, of yesterday's date; and I own that I never received one like it since I was born; and I give your Lōp. ten thousand thanks for the kind freedom you use with me in it: for I see by it, that, for my misfortune in having ane obstinate, stubborn, Son and ane ungrateful Kindred, my family must go to destruction, and I must lose my Life in my old Age. Such usage looks rather like a Turkish or Persian Government than like a British. —

' Now, my dear Lord, I beg leave to tell you my Mind freely in my turn. I thank God, I was born with very little fear. In my greatest difficulties and dangers, by Sea and Land, and by God's assistance, I often saved my Life by the firmness and stedfastness of my resolutions; and tho' I have now but a little remains of a Life that is clogg'd with infirmities and pains, yet, by God's help, I am resolv'd to preserve it as long as I can; and tho' my Son should go away with the young people of his clan, yet I'll have six hundred brave Frasers at home, many of them about my own age, that will lose the last drop of their blood to preserve my person. —

' As to the Civil War that occasions my misfortune, and in which almost the whole Kingdom is involved, on one side or other; I humbly think that men should be moderate on both sides; since it is morally impossible to know the Event. For thousands, nay ten thousands on both sides, are positive that their own Party will carry; and suppose that this Highland Army should be utterly defeat, and that the Government should carry all in Triumph, no Man can think that any King upon the Throne would destroy so many ancient good Familys that are engaged in it.'

[*To be continued.*]

Art. II. *M. de* St. Pierre's *Harmonies of Nature.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 125.]

In his fifth book, M. de St. Pierre proceeds to take a view of the *Harmonies of Animals.* The slightest survey of the animal kingdom may suffice to convince us that it is of a decidedly higher order than the vegetable; and indeed a marked difference may be observed in the composition of the two domains. A vegetable generally consists of such a mixture as to contain young and old at the same time; the bough of a tree, for example, being younger than the stem, and the soft wood of later date than the hardened trunk: whereas an animal is not formed of an assemblage of living creatures, and the decay of its parts takes place at once; so that it differs from the vegetable in the material circumstance of having the whole of its system of an equal age. Similar variations exist with regard to the disposition of the organs. The animal kingdom, moreover, unites all those harmonies which have been noted in the vegetable, and superadds to them animal life; a power including sentient, intellectual, and moral faculties, each of which has its appropriate harmonies. These positions lead to many others, in the way of illustration, but into the accuracy of which we cannot enter, without involving ourselves in vague and unprofitable controversy. Man alone combines all the qualities which we find scattered throughout the various tribes of the animal kingdom, being capable at once of industry and of refined enjoyment; and he alone, of all created beings in this world, seems to have an impression of Divine power.

From such topics, the author naturally passes to *Human Harmonies,* which form the subject of the sixth book. Nature imparts to us only those truths which are in connection with our wants; and science may be defined to be a feeling of those laws which have a reference to man. Reason, harmonizing with the laws of nature, inspires us with the influence of the grand rule of social intercourse, to do to others as we wish that they should do to us. To the power of reasoning, man is indebted for the consciousness of the existence of a Supreme Governor; — a consciousness inferred from the harmonies of the universe; — and from the course of these harmonies, that of human virtue will be found to arise. The commencement of this course we can easily trace to the *Harmonies of Childhood*, which figure as another title in these volumes; and which here again suggest useful views of early education, and various reflections on different passages in human history.

By *Fraternal Harmonies*, which pass under review in the seventh book, are understood those that accord or coincide with one another; as, for example, the two similar organs of the same body, fitted for mutual assistance. Every vegetable or animal, we are told, is formed of only two similar halves, and with organs in equal numbers: a sphere may be decomposed into an indefinite number of such coincident portions; and, in the firmament, the orb of day is in correspondence or fraternal union with that of night. In short, the groupes of harmonies of this description, not only in the animal and vegetable world but even among the elements, elude our powers of enumeration. From the author's detailed explanations of these principles, he deduces, in his usual manner, many practical and pious corollaries: while, by an easy transition, he conducts us to the consideration of *Friendship*, or that harmony which subsists between two beings incident to the same wants; and then to that of fraternal affection in families; — interspersing and enlivening his remarks by allusions to the Episode of Nisus and Euryalus, Plutarch's Treatise on Brotherly Affection, &c.

'However, if we think it expedient to give brothers amusements in common, we must be careful in the choice of a profession to keep them distinct, that we may remove from them all ground of rivalship. The love of pleasure forms a bond of union among men, in the same way as interest has a tendency to create separation. Amusement calls for companions, but ambition refuses them. All passions are of an unsocial character. Moreover, as the inclinations of children are very various, we should give each of them full liberty to follow his own. Castor and Pollux, so celebrated for their union, were celebrated likewise in war; but the one excelled on horseback, the other in combating with the cestus. I may, however, appeal to an example of brotherly love vouched by authorities more within our scrutiny than those which relate to the twins of Elis; I allude to the two brothers, Peter and Thomas Corneille. They were both tragic poets, that is, they belonged to a profession which brooks rivalship worse than any other. They lived together during life, and never thought of making a division of their paternal inheritance until their time of marriage. They occupied a small house at Rouen, Thomas lodging on the ground floor, and Peter above him on the first floor, which communicated with the other by a small stair-case; each pursued his labours in sight of the other. Thomas excelled in finding a number of rhymes to the same word; Peter did not possess this facility, but, when at a loss for a rhyme, addressed his brother, who gave him forthwith his choice. The intimacy of their friendship appears to me a still more remarkable thing than the extent of their talents, particularly as they were not on a par in point of reputation. That these celebrated poets should have lived in the common enjoyment of property, pleasure, and labour, is to be attributed partly to that superiority to jealousy which exists in men of distinguished talent, partly to their having been brought up together under their father's roof. The anecdote I have just mentioned was repeated to me by M. Mustel, a native of Normandy. The small dwelling of the brothers was still standing in my infancy: I do not know if it is still in existence. The Greeks would have made a temple of it dedicated to the Muses and to brotherly affection.'

Conjugal Harmonies are feelingly discussed in the eighth book, and are thus introduced to our notice:

'Love is, in children, a moral sentiment, which manifests itself in them long before they are aware of the distinction of sex. They have greater sensibility and acuteness in discovering a pleasant and comely countenance than we should imagine. Rousseau told me that the writers in the French Encyclopedia having given a ball where he happened to be present, the plan was to begin by Fontenelle, then above ninety years of age, and a pretty little girl of seven or eight. Scarcely, however, had the child cast her eyes on the wrinkled forehead and sunken cheeks of Fontenelle, than she drew back her hand, and burst into tears. The Nestor of philosophers was hurt, thinking it, no doubt, strange that he, who was in such request among all classes of society, should be shunned by a child, alive only to the instinct of nature. He was then rendered conscious, notwithstanding the remaining vigour of his mind, of the decrepitude of his body, by the fright into which it put a child; and he received the serious lesson, that the two extremes of our career form an unpleasant contrast, in the commencement of life and at the approach of death.

'Children, however, seek with great ardour the society of children of their own age, and the prettiest are always the most welcome: their affection is often fixed on a single companion to the exclusion of the others. It is curious to see a little girl desirous to make herself agreeable to a boy, but still keeping a certain distance, while he thinks of nothing but of doing what can please her. Who has not taken delight in observing children engaged in their amusements, in listening to their promises of perpetual cordiality, in observing their little jealousies, and the disquietudes of which they are productive. The degree of attachment between one child and another, and their consequent disappointment when any thing interferes with its gratification, is much greater than people generally imagine. A philosophic eye may trace in these early habits the origin of future character. Hardly is a little girl able to walk, before she takes a pleasure in looking at herself in the glass, and in adjusting her dress; she watches her doll with a kind of maternal care. She delights in singing almost from the moment that she is able to speak, and of all kinds of songs, she prefers those that are indicative of affection. A boy, on the other hand, neglects dress, and thinks chiefly of arms and active exercise; he takes a pleasure in extracting a sound from drums and trumpets, in running, leaping, and climbing; and he is supremely happy when he has at his diposal a wooden sword or sabre. Even in these early years, we see a marked contrast between the sexes, the one absorbed in the thought of exploits, the other in sentiments of affection; the one is evidently made to protect, the other to be loved and protected.

'Let us then endeavour to lay before each the duties resulting from affection, before the purity of the natural feeling be tainted in them by the manners of society. Let us shew them the laws which regulate affection, as they are displayed in all the works of nature, which unite the one to the other by conjugal harmony. Let us open a passage to the torrent at its fountain-head, that when it comes to descend from the mountain, it may not ravage the lands which it ought to fertilize.'

Air and light, earth and ocean, rivers and their islands, &c. may be said to exist in conjugal harmony; and, at stated seasons, plants unfold their capacities for sexual union. Conjugal harmony, however, has a far more extensive influence on the animal than on the vegetable system; prompting to a display of all the graces and all the defensive energies of which the individual is susceptible. In spring, particularly, love calls forth their instincts in harmonies of greater variety than those of colour, shape, or motion. In the human species, the beauty of the two sexes is marked by distinguishing characters; and nature has not only doubled the moral and physical strength of man by means of contrasts and coincidences, but has quadrupled it by giving him the aid of woman. Chaste and temperate habits are the chief foundation of strength and beauty in the two sexes; and labour, that gift of Heaven, by banishing languor enlivens the mind, and by settling the imagination forms the true bond of conjugal harmony. From this last source, the consequences which result to society are more affecting than those that are produced by the fraternal harmony, because they imply the attraction of contrasts:

'Amiable children choose in the age of innocence a model which may afford you a safe guide in the age of passion. You, who have equally to dread corrupt society and the wanderings of your own hearts, follow, I entreat you, the path of nature, which never leads astray. In a virtuous object, you find collected both the beauty that is scattered on the earth, and the virtue that is derived from Heaven. Such an attachment will create in you the love of industry, along with courage, constancy, humanity, and piety. Cherish such affections early, if you wish them to continue with you to the last. The attachments which remain till old age are generally those which have been formed in the early period of life, because youthful attachments are generally most innocent, and exempt from mercenary considerations.

'But to whatever object you attach yourself, remember that it is transient like yourself. A day will come when you will no longer hear the voice of her you love, when she will cease to dwell in her accustomed habitation, or to direct her steps to meet you in the grove. What consolation can you then possess if you have not long accustomed yourself to put your hopes in Heaven? Comfort yourself with the hope of meeting your partner in another world. You may safely say to yourself, Why should I not flatter myself? What would an insulated mind do even in Paradise? Cicero is delighted with the prospect of meeting there with Lælius, Cato, Scipio, and other great men; a feeling entertained by him along with every sage. They seek solitude on earth that they may be out of the way of the perverse; in heaven they will seek society, because it is the assemblage of the good. Doubtless the pure minds who, in a humble situation, have fulfilled the first duties of nature, will be admitted there, as well as those who have held higher charges. It is the part of an affectionate heart, not only to love those whom it has left in this world, but to desire a union with them in heaven.'

The ninth and last book relates to the *Harmonies of the Heavenly Bodies*. To the sun, whose dimensions and relations we are so apt to disregard, we owe the warmth of our atmosphere, the fertility of our fields, and the maturity of our fruits. 'By his presence, he creates day, light, heat, motion, and life; by his absence, night, cold, rest, and death: the two, combining in a variety of ways, form the principal harmonies of nature.'— Solar attraction may be termed the basis of our planetary system, and is diffused throughout the globe.

M. de St. Pierre adopts Dr. Herschell's notions with respect to the nature of the sun, in preference to those of Newton. The planets, he supposes, are fundamentally of the same nature with our earth, however differently modified; and, as these orbs are illuminated by one sun, he deems it not improbable that a considerable resemblance may exist between the rational beings who occupy them.

Proceeding on some of the principal data that have been ascertained by astronomers, the author reviews the harmonies of each planet with the sun. Among other novel ideas, he conceives that the splendid reflections of particular spots in Mercury, &c. are occasioned by ice on the summits of its mountains. With respect to the fixed stars, it seems probable that each has planets subject to its attractions. The partial appearance and disappearance of some of them would lead us to the supposition that they have one side more luminous than the other; and that, in revolving round their axis, they shew us sometimes the one and sometimes the other. However vast their distance from one another, they appear to exhibit a certain degree of mutual connection, being arranged on different planes, which extend into the depth of the firmament. To our eyes, they present various magnitudes and groupes; while white and luminous spaces contain thousands of stars perceptible by the telescope.

In adverting to the *Solar Harmonies of the Moon*, the writer endeavours to confute the opinion of those who maintain that the moon has no atmosphere; and to prove that she is placed in the most proper manner to reflect the sun's rays. From the uniformity of the moon's light, he infers that her very lofty mountains are arranged like reflectors, so as to transmit the solar rays to our earth equally from all points of her circumference. The maps of the moon, like those of the sun, he regards as extremely defective; and the rotatory motion of our satellite round her axis he rejects as chimerical. At the same time, we must not suppose that she was created merely for our convenience, or that she is herself devoid of inhabitants. The earth, again, in its turn lighted by the sun, transmits to the moon a portion of solar light, probably reflected from the seas and icy mountains.—Lastly, all nations seem to have agreed in considering the moon as influencing the birth and the death of created beings:

'The Greeks and Romans were accustomed to invoke her under the name of Lucina and Hithyia to preside over the delivery of women, and finally over our death under the name of Hecate. Her pale light may be considered as exciting impressions of a mild and melancholy character, connected with the ideas of entering on and quitting this stage of existence. She seems at once to tie and untie the links of life; she vivifies the waters by her luminous rays, and she renders visible the mountains and forests buried under the veil of night. It is on the recurrence of her different phases that the fishes glide along the currents of the ocean to multiply their species, and that carnivorous animals issue from their deserts in quest of prey. It is only by the mild light of the moon that a love-scene can be rendered affecting; and had I to paint the adieux of Andromache, I would place them on the same bank, and enlighten them with the same nocturnal ray, as I should use in delineating the funeral of Hector.'

In the concluding section, we have some reflections on the *Solar and Lunar Harmonies of the Powers of Nature on the Earth*; particularly on the influences of the phases of the moon over the revolutions of the atmosphere. To the combination of solar and lunar harmonies, we should ascribe the alternations and characters of our predominant winds. With respect to animals, the phases of their life are regulated by those of the sun and the moon. The harmonies of these luminaries with living beings are inexhaustible; and the hours of sleeping and waking, the times of migration observed by whole tribes, the seasons of their loves, and the periods of their death, accord with certain stages in the revolutions of these heavenly bodies.

'I am inclined to observe that the animals which die of old age go off the stage, as they came upon it, without being aware of the change. The last steps in the descent of life are on as gentle a slope as those of its commencement. They have not been led by vain ambition to climb precipices, or to incur a violent death; but, faithful to the laws received from nature, they restore her that instinct which has now become useless in an exhausted machine: they expire without regret, remorse, or murmur. When a tranquil death takes place in the night, the moon may be said to untie those links which she strung together at the time of birth. Her light still sheds a pale ray over their breathless bodies, and covers them with her funereal crape; while the earth, their common mother, which receives them in her bosom, raises as an ornament to their tomb the broad foliage of the burdock, or a garland of ivy. Time, like a reaper, cuts down generation after generation of animals; and he likewise plants and gathers, but in comparatively smaller members, the individuals of our species.

'Let man, however, not vent complaints on the short duration of life; his celestial harmonies will subsist after his terrestrial are at an end. The Author of Nature has attached to his bodily existence several years of bitterness and trial; but he has given his soul an eternity of joy and delight. He is by no means a being condemned to creep on this globe, or to tear its bosom with the ploughshare for the sake of supporting a frail existence. His life is transient, but it has an object, and that object is sublime. Behold him expiring in his bed; his body is in pain, but he already contemplates a God prepared to receive him. Can this being, so weak and helpless, be so strongly impressed with a thought that would not have been sanctioned by the Creator of all thoughts? No, it is not in vain that he has opened his hopes to a future destiny. He quits a world of darkness for a world of light; he quits misfortune, and frail mortals like himself, to enter on an abode where death is not known. His eyes will no longer be distressed by the sight of distress; every object will be replete with content and satisfaction. How great must be the transports of man when, escaped from the agony of life, he sees the gates of heaven open to him! He is now no longer a creature of the dust; he is an angel, a superior being, advanced to an upper region. After remaining during a season a slave and in irons, now behold him free, and the possessor of a new domain! But lately sad and suffering, he dragged his step toward death, and he rises from it full of glory. He inhabited a world covered with the funereal cypress, bedewed with tears, where all is subject to change and to death; where we indulge love only to experience suffering, and where we meet our friends only to part with them. He is now transported to an abode where all is eternal; his soul is kindled with everlasting love, and he casts, from the height of the firmament, a sympathizing look towards his fellow-creatures in this lower world.'

With the view of illustrating the doctrine of *Human Harmonies,* the amiable author has subjoined an episode, or dialogue, intitled *Empsael;* which, though somewhat tedious, is not destitute of interest; and which demonstrates, in strong and affecting language, the gross injustice and inhumanity of the slave-trade.

We have thus summarily glanced at the principles and design of the present publication; interspersing our rapid sketch with a few extracts, in order to enable our readers to form some estimate of the style and manner in which it has been executed. The term *Harmonies* has been evidently adopted throughout with great latitude of import; denoting often merely ideas of relation, adaptation, analogy, or even contrast. The systematic nomenclature of these harmonies, also, is rather capricious, and might have been greatly multiplied. The same pious and philanthropic spirit which breathes in the "Studies of Nature" pervades the work before us, and diffuses an air of tender eloquence even over statements of well-known facts, or common-place observations: but a critic of accurate discernment, and of refined taste, may probably feel disposed to withhold his approbation from the formal and scholastic addresses to Venus, and other antique personages of distinction; from the frequent insertion of digressive or irrelevant matter; from a heavy wordiness which occasionally envelopes the meaning and the sentiments; and from the repeated recurrence of the same assertion, conjecture, or illustration. In like manner, the philosophic reader will not greatly applaud the substitution of fancy and hypothesis, however ingenious or original, for the deductions of sound reason, or the legitimate principles of science. Among the physical heresies which will now remain associated with the author's name, we may reckon the notions of the earth being prolonged at the poles, of the tides being produced by the medium of the polar ice, and of the moon's transmission of sensible heat to the earth.

In the course of regular perusal, we had noted several passages which struck us as loose, or declamatory, or as penned under the influence of an excursive or ardent imagination.

Occasionally, too, we have encountered certain positions, or assertions, which are at variance with truth or with one another, or are at least destitute of sufficient evidence to produce conviction. That, for example, the mosses of the north exist *only* by the solar rays will not be readily admitted by any cryptogamist, who has seen them most verdant and flourishing in the short, dark, and moist days of winter, and who is aware that many of them are incapable of vegetating in the effulgence of a tropical sun. The author, indeed, in a subsequent part of his work, seems to represent them as chiefly under the direct influence of the *moon.* — Again, is he really such a novice in the history of Botany and of Astronomy, as seriously to believe that these sciences offer to our contemplation nothing but 'a wretched and meagre nomenclature, and useless divisions?' The botanical divisions, however, as we afterward learn, are founded on the very harmonies which he is so solicitous to establish, and which, in his opinion, have been so long and so generally recognized; since he admits that Linné deduced all his classes from the conjugal harmony and its various modifications; and he refers to the principles of maternal harmony the bases of the systems proposed by Ray, Haller, and Jussieu. In one passage, we are told that the fraternal harmony is manifested in the heavenly bodies, and in the two hemispheres of our own globe; yet, in the course of a few lines, we are assured that this harmony can be exhibited only *in organized beings, indued with life.* — The idea of groupes of vegetables, planted in the order in which their seeds are arranged on the placenta, as corn in furrows, and disposed like its grains in the ear, is purely fanciful. None, perhaps, but those who have perused the passage to which we allude, ever dreamed of such a far-fetched analogy. What resemblance, moreover, has an extended furrow, in an horizontal surface, to the small vertical row of grains in an ear of wheat? The correspondence between the distribution of grass-plants in a meadow, and of seeds in a loose spike, or panicle, is still more remote. We may add that, when drill-husbandry is first introduced into a district, the regular furrow affects the eye as an artificial and stiff innovation, to which it becomes gradually reconciled only through the force of habit and associated ideas of utility.

The purification of the air in spring, and its balsamic effects on the health and spirits, are ideas more congenial with poetry than with truth; because spring is often a season of sickness, and affects delicate temperaments with emotions of melancholy. — The pleading in favour of the observance of a vegetable diet bespeaks little attention to the anatomical structure of man, or to the obvious designs of Providence. — The propriety of introducing a great variety of esculent vegetables into *Finland* implies a less accurate acquaintance with that country than such as, we should have supposed, might have resulted from the author's personal observation. During the short summer of that northern region, however oppressive the heat may sometimes prove from the absence of wind, the moisture of the atmosphere, and the harassment of insects, still the inconstancy of the climate, and the sudden transitions to which it is liable, even in the finest season of the year, preclude the operations of either husbandry or horticulture, on an extensive scale. — The definition of *Jean Jacques*, which a mother is here made to give to her daughter, is that he was a man 'who was much persecuted, because he espoused the cause of the unfortunate.' That of *law-suits* is not less partial, nor less calculated to convey to the youthful mind unfavourable impressions of human nature. 'What do you mean by law-suits?' says the daughter; to which the mother very scientifically replies, 'They are wars carried on against us with a view to obtain from us what we do not owe, and to withhold from us what is our due.'

That no medicines, but those which are *agreeable* to us, are conducive either to health or morals, is too bold a dogma to be stated without a shadow of proof. — The eloquent harangue against the use of tea, coffee, sugar, &c. involves the consideration of two important questions; namely, whether external commerce be advantageous to the interests of society, and whether the civilized be preferable to the savage state of man. With him who, like the author, is disposed to answer both in the negative, we have neither leisure nor inclination to contend. — That no volcanoes are to be found at the poles may, for aught that we know to the contrary, be a fact: but how can we positively affirm that it is so? Since they occur in Iceland, is it not rash to assume that they can have no existence farther north? Besides, the theory of the northern aurora, which is here proposed, would require that this phænomenon should always exhibit a considerable diversity of colours; whereas a faint white, or pale yellow, is its most frequent hue. — If the sun's rays really penetrate into the deepest recesses of the ocean, the fact would require to be established by actual observation, not by fanciful theories; and, if any reliance can be placed on the experiments of Bouguer, the light of day must totally vanish in the abysses of the sea. M. de St. Pierre's very mistaken views with respect to the state of sub-marine botany, in this country, *harmonize*

monize with the accuracy of his topographical knowlege, which places the *Giant's Causeway* in Scotland.

That the religious sentiment is *innate* in man is extremely questionable, 1st, because the alleged fact, that a sense of the existence of Deity prevails among all savage tribes, is not distinctly ascertained; and, 2dly, because children indicate no operation of any religious principle, till it has been suggested and inculcated by their instructors.—When we reflect on M. de St. Pierre's hatred of materialism, we cannot help expressing our surprize that he should gratuitously adopt the extravagant notion of *five distinct souls;* a doctrine which, if true, would greatly detract from the grand argument that is founded on the *simplicity* of mind.—In one page, the Africans are represented as urged against each other by the most implacable spirit of revenge, and, without any view to conquest or plunder, butchering entire hordes, regardless alike of sex or age, and drinking the blood and regaling on the flesh of their enemies; while, in another, they are said to have seldom any object in their acts of hostility but booty and slaves, and consequently to spare their prisoners.—The author's reasoning against the principles of gravitation is somewhat mystical, and would lead us to infer that he ascribes life and volition to masses of unorganized matter. — Finally, our readers, perhaps, are now prepared to hear that the sun is composed of gold, and the moon of silver; and that planetary phases influence the stages and periods of animal and vegetable life.

Here let us pause from the ungrateful task of pointing to spots and blemishes in a work which evinces both ingenuity and research; and which reflects the highest honour on the amiable and pious dispositions of its departed author. More accurate and enlarged views of science and of human nature, than seem to have fallen to his lot, would have infused into his writings a more philosophical train of thinking. His habits of intimacy with Rousseau have enabled him to mention incidentally one or two anecdotes of that most extraordinary personage, which will probably be new to many of our readers. His other favourite authors seem to have been Virgil and La Fontaine. They who are desirous of a mere intellectual regale will probably deem these very multifarious volumes *prosing,* digressive, and declamatory; while they who delight in the effusions of fancy and sensibility will be gratified with the novelty of many of the writer's analogies, the copiousness of his illustrations, the mild colouring of his descriptions, and the tenderness of his heart.

The translation, from which we have copied our extracts, is in general executed with spirit and ability: but it occasionally betrays symptoms of haste or negligence. We know not why Mr. Meeston should have suppressed the editor's short notice of the intended publication of St. Pierre's works, the dedication to which we have already alluded, and many entire sentences in M. Martin's preliminary discourse, without once apprizing us of such retrenchments. In the course of the work, too, he has cancelled various clauses of sentences, or even whole periods; often, indeed, without much detriment to the argument or the meaning, but still without intimating that he had used such freedoms. In some instances, he has softened or modified the extravagance of his text; in a few, he has superadded some adventitious ideas; and in others he has misconceived or distorted the sense of the French expression. Lest Mr. Meeston should think that these strictures are rashly hazarded, we subjoin a few passages from the original, confronted with the English version, and then appeal to his own good sense and candour.

— "*Où il a du d'abord prendre naissance*"—'where *we know from Scripture, as we should suppose from philosophy*, that he first drew breath.' — "*Dont les rapports sont aussi peu connus que les vaisseaux méme où ils circulent*"— '*to the constitution of which we are in general apt to pay very little attention.*'—"*Mais elle a comme lui ses amours, sa posterité, sa tribu*"— 'but it [a plant] has, as well as the latter, *its distinctive character*, and, *as has been ascertained in a recent age, the power of perpetuating its species.*'— "*Par un été plus chaud que celui de l'équateur*" — 'in the course of a summer which *approaches to* that of the equinoctial.' — "*Avec des groseilles dont elle étoit insatiable*" — 'by a *prudent use* of gooseberries.'— "*Qui est l'animal, composé des humeurs et du sang des animaux,*"— 'that *which is absorbed by animals*, and *which is useful in renovating their blood and humours.*'— "*La soie de la moule pinnée*"—'*the use of mother of pearl.*'— "*Qui a encore alors cinq à six lieues de hauteur, et deux à trois de circonférence*" — 'which even in that season *presents an awful and magnificent appearance.*'— "*Le mauvais ouvrage de Coxe,*"—'the work of the Rev. Mr. Coxe.'—"*Il me semble,*"—'*some philosophic reasoners imagine.*' — "*Massacrent des peuples entiers; hommes, femmes, enfans, en boivent le sang et se repaissent de leur chair*"— '*to inflict injury on each other, or to lead their prisoners into lasting captivity.*' — "*Tel est celui* [l'empire] *des Chinois, qui a quatre mille sept cent ans d'antiquité*" — '*although nothing is ascertained with certainty in regard to the time that the Chinese government has existed.*'

Of single words mis-translated, we may notice *argenté*, rendered 'slender;' *terne*, turned; *olivier*, elm; *marbre*, marl; *marne*, marble; *moineaux*, swallows; *demi pied*, a foot; *puce*, fly; *aiguille*, eel, &c. — In other respects, however, Mr. Meeston's labours are deserving of commendation.

Art. III. *A Treatise on Algebra, in Practice and Theory.* With Notes and Illustrations; containing a Variety of Particulars relating to the Discoveries and Improvements that have been made in this Branch of Analysis. By John Bonnycastle, Professor of Mathematics in the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich. 8vo. 2 Vols. Boards. Law, Longman and Co. &c.

The science of algebra has been so much improved and extended within the last half century, that those English treatises, which were formerly considered as our standard works on this fundamental branch of analysis, are become of little or no use to the student who wishes to acquire a correct knowlege of modern algebra. We refer here more particularly to the works of Maclaurin, Simpson, Emerson, and Saunderson, which were all performances of great merit at the time when they were written: but the very different manner of treating the subject at the present day, and the extension and generalization which have been given to several parts of it, are such that these authors can now be advantageously consulted only with the view of acquiring a knowlege of the history of the science, and of ascertaining the successive improvements and alterations which it has undergone in the hands of the later analysts. We have, it is true, several smaller publications, of more recent date, which have in a greater or less degree adopted the modern methods; such as the algebraical treatises by Wood, Trail, and the duodecimo edition of the present author: but these are all too confined in their limits to enter on the subject at the length which its importance requries. Euler's algebra, which has been translated into English, though an excellent performance, is also too contracted in its object to supply the required information, being principally confined to the solution of determinate and indeterminate equations, and diophantine problems; and consequently many interesting subjects, which now engage the attention of algebraists, are either entirely omitted or so slightly touched as to be of no essential service to the student: — such as the theory of Binomial and Reciprocal Equations; the general formulæ of Elimination; the doctrines of Series; vanishing Fractions; and a variety of other important branches, which now necessarily constitute so many parts of modern algebra.

This being the case, the English student will feel himself highly gratified by the appearance of the present publication, which is intended to supply the defect just stated by introducing into one regular treatise all the most essential branches of this very extensive and useful science. The work commences, as usual, with the definitions and leading rules of algebra, and furnishes nothing that requires particular notice till we arrive at the solution of cubic equations. This subject is considerably more extended than we remember to have seen it in any similar performance. Mr. Bonnycastle treats first of the solution by Cardan's rule; secondly, of that which is effected by the method of converging series; and, lastly, of that which proceeds by means of a table of sines and tangents; with every necessary direction and explanation for the most inexperienced student. Indeed, if we have any ground of complaint with regard to the execution of this part, it is that too much pains have been taken not only in this chapter but throughout the first volume, to simplify the rules and operations; so that little is left to exercise the ingenuity of the reader. We conceive, for instance, that, in exhibiting the formulæ comprehending the solution of cubic equations by Cardan's rule,—as also in those which apply to quadratics,—it would have been quite sufficient to have employed only the general forms $x^3 + ax = b$, and $x^2 + ax = b$, instead of dividing each of them into three different cases according as a and b are affected with different signs. The subdivision here mentioned doubtless facilitates the student's progress, while he has the book to consult: but we much question whether it does not help to embarrass him in any future application of the rules when he is deprived of its aid, as in the case of examination. We advance this doubt, however, with some diffidence, because the great practice which the author has had as a mathematical teacher must naturally have led him to contemplate the comparative advantages and disadvantages arising out of this multiplication of algebraic formulæ.

We should have observed before that Mr. B. has arranged his work so as to include all the practical part of it in the first volume, and all the theory and investigations in the second: but we prefer, in the present article, to consider both in connection; and we shall therefore turn to either volume as occasion may require.

In the practical chapter on Biquadratic Equations, the author has confined himself to two methods of solution: but, in the corresponding article in vol. ii., he enters into investigations of all the principal rules that have been given for this purpose by Descartes, Waring, Simpson, Euler, &c., interspersing them with short historical notes; a plan adopted throughout the work, and which cannot fail of rendering it highly interesting to the English student.

Next follow the methods of solving equations by approximation; first by Newton's rule, as improved by Raphson, and secondly by double position. In the second volume, also, some other methods are explained and investigated, of which the most important is that of Lagrange, though we must still protest against the utility of it considered as a practical rule. As a matter of theory, it is doubtless very ingenious, and worthy of the talents of its author, but for its practical application it is totally useless. Indeed, we have no hesitation in regarding Raphson's method for equations of the common form as preferable to any other, since the rule of position is for those of a more complicated formation; and we are of opinion that, if our algebraists would allow themselves to enter into a complete investigation of the principles of the former, it might be rendered as perfect as we can expect on a subject involving so many complicated considerations. It has, for example, been demonstrated that one of the principal objections which has been raised against it is groundless; viz. "that the approximation is sometimes made to one root and sometimes towards another:" whereas in fact it is always directed either towards that root which is nearest to or that which is most remote from the supposition; and therefore, since all the roots of an equation cannot lie between two consecutive integers, we are certain, if the correction be decimal, that it is going on towards the root sought, and, if the correction be integral, it may be rectified by a different supposition. We are not disposed to maintain that this method can be rendered perfect: but we cordially agree with the opinion which we have seen advanced elsewhere, "that many of the objections made to Newton's rule, and to others depending on similar principles, have been much over-rated; while the value of Lagrange's method considered as a practical rule has been as improperly estimated too highly." As a matter of theory, however, the latter is certainly interesting, and is therefore very properly introduced by Mr. Bonnycastle into his investigations in the second volume; we should, indeed, have had no objection to see it more fully illustrated. The most valuable part of Lagrange's method is that by which he obtains his equation of differences; and it ought, we think, to have been exemplified in the above chapter.

In the subsequent articles, the author treats of the solution of reciprocal equations; giving in vol. i. the practical rules for every such equation, from the 3d to the 9th degree inclusive; and the investigation of them being included in the corresponding article of vol. ii. The method followed by the author, in the solution of equations of this kind, will be comprehended from an abstract of his rules for those of even dimensions:

'1. If the equation be of the 4th power, as $x^4 + px^3 + qx^2 + px + 1 = 0$, find the two values of z in the equation $z^2 + pz + q - 2 = 0$, and let them be denoted by r and r'; then the roots of the two quadratic equations $x^2 - rx + 1 = 0$, and $x^2 - r'x + 1 = 0$, will be the four roots of the equation proposed.

'2. If it be of the 6th power, as

$$x^5 + px^5 + qx^4 + rx^3 + qx^2 + px + 1 = 0,$$

find the three values of z in the cubic equation $z^3 + pz^2 + (q-3)z + r - 2p = 0$, and let them be denoted by r, r', r''; then the roots of the three quadratic equations $x^2 - rx + 1 = 0$, $x^2 - r'x + 1 = 0$, and $x^2 - r''x + 1 = 0$, will be the six roots of the proposed equation.

'3. And if it be of the 8th power, as

$$x^8 + px^7 + qx^6 + rx^5 + sx^4 + rx^3 + qx^2 + px + 1 = 0,$$

find the four values of z in the biquadratic equation $z^4 + pz^3 + (q-4)z^2 + (r-3p)z + s - 2(q-1) = 0$, and let them be denoted by r, r', r'', r'''; then the roots of the four quadratic equations, $x^2 - rx + 1 = 0$, $z^2 - r'x + 1 = 0$, $x^2 - r''x + 1 = 0$, and $x^2 - r'''x + 1 = 0$, will be the eight roots of the proposed equation.'

We are next introduced to the doctrine of binomial equations, which is a subject that has not, as far as we are aware, found its way into any English treatise; although this theory has long engaged the attention and exercised the ingenuity of foreign authors. In a recent work, indeed, which we have not yet had an opportunity of reporting, viz. Mr. Barlow's *Theory of Numbers*, the doctrine of Binomial Equations is introduced, as far as it is necessary for explaining the principles of what is commonly called *Gauss's Theorem*, and which certainly is one of the most remarkable applications of this theory. This part of the subject, however, is not treated in the present performance; the chapter dedicated to it in vol. i. being confined to certain formulæ of solution for a few of the most simple cases: but, in the second volume, the investigations and illustrations of the doctrine are carried to a considerable length, including the solution of every such equation by means of certain trigonometrical formulæ with which they are connected; being in fact an analytical exhibition of the Cotesian Theorem. This part is illustrated with great precision and perspicuity, and deserves the particular attention of the student.

The succeeeding chapters relate to the solution of equations having equal roots, and the theory of exponential equations: but, as nothing of a very novel kind occurs in either of these articles, we shall conclude this part of our analysis by a short abstract of those pages of vol. ii. which treat of the roots and generation of equations. — The method invented by Harriot, and which has been since commonly followed, has been very justly disapproved by some modern authors, who have in consequence adopted different methods of illustration. The mode of investigation pursued by Mr. Bonnycastle is remarkably simple and convincing, although the general conclusion rests in some measure on induction. He begins with a quadratic equation, and says that, admitting it to have one root, it must necessarily have two: for if $x^2+px=q$ be the proposed equation; then, if a be one of its roots, we have $a^2+pa=q$, and therefore $x^2+px=a^2+pa$ or $x^2-a^2=-p\ (x-a)$; whence, by division, $x+a=-p$, or $x=-p+a$, which is therefore necessarily another root of the equation. Mr. B. then shews that it can have but these two roots; and, by means of this conclusion, he readily demonstrates that a cubic has three roots, and only three, and a biquadratic four, and only four. The demonstration of the latter case, and the inference drawn from it, we shall give in the author's own words:

‘ Again, let there be taken the general biquadratic equation

$$x^4+px^3+qx^2+rx=s.$$

‘ And suppose its root, or one of the values of x, as in the former instances, to be a.

‘ Then, by substituting a for x, as before, we shall have

$$a^4+pa^3+qa^2+ra=s.$$

‘ And, consequently, if this value be put for s, in the first equation, it will become

$$x^4+px^3+qx^2+rx=a^4+pa^3+qa^2+ra.$$

‘ Or, by transposing and uniting the corresponding powers of x and a, as in the last case,

$$x^4-a^4+p\ (x^3-a^3)+q\,(x^2-a^2)=-r\,(x-a).$$

‘ Whence, dividing each side of this equation by $x-a$, and collecting the like terms, we shall have

$$x^3+(a+p)\,x^2+(a^2+ap+q)\,x=-a\,(a^2+ap+q)-r.$$

which is a cubic equation, having, as has been before shown, three roots, or values of x.

‘ And therefore as a, by hypothesis, is another value of x, the proposed biquadratic must necessarily have four roots, and no more, for a reason similar to that before given for cubic equations.

'Hence, as it can be shown, by the same mode of reasoning, that an equation of the fifth power has five roots and no more; one of the 6th power, six roots, and no more; and so on; it follows, that an equation of any power whatever must have as many roots as there are units in the index of its highest term.

'3. Also, since it appears from prop. 1., that every equation, when all its terms are brought to one side, is exactly divisible by the unknown quantity in that equation *minus* either of its roots, and by no other simple factor, it is evident that the equation

$$x^m + \mathrm{A}x^{m-1} + \mathrm{B}x^{m-2} + \mathrm{C}x^{m-3} + \ldots + \mathrm{T}x + \mathrm{V} = 0 \ldots (1)$$

of which $a, b, c, d, \ldots l$, are supposed to be its several roots, is composed of as many factors

$$(x-a)\ (x-b)\ (x-c)\ (x-d)\ \ldots\ (x-l) = 0 \ldots (2)$$

as the equation has roots; and that it can have no other factor whatever of that form.'

Having thus arrived at this last general form, which is that which was assumed by Harriot, Mr. B. draws from it the same remarkable conclusions.

The chapter in the second volume on the Binomial Theorem is prefaced by a short historical sketch of its invention, and a few remarks relative to the different attempts that have been made to supply a demonstration of it, which was omitted by its author. Mr. B. prefers to employ, in his proof, the principle which determines the law of the terms from the equality of the co-efficient of the like powers of the same indeterminate quantity, in two identical expansions; viz. assuming, first, that

$$\left(1 + \frac{x}{a}\right)^m = 1 + A\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + B\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^2 + C\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^3 +, \text{\&c.}$$

and afterward substituting $y + z$ for $\frac{x}{a}$, the above function is put under the form

$$((1+y)+z)^m \text{ and } (1+(y+z))^m,$$

and their expansions under the forms

$$1 + A\,(y+z) + B\,(y+z)^2 + C\,(y+z)^3 +, \text{\&c.}$$
$$(1+y)^m + A(1+y)^{m-1}\ z + B\ (1+y)^{m-2}\ z^2 +, \text{\&c.}$$

Then, expanding again the several powers of $(y+z)$ and of $(1+y)$, and equating the co-efficients of the like powers of the same letters, the value of the co-efficients A, B, C, &c. are determined, and the law of the theorem is established. We shall only observe that, in our opinion, too much of the fundamental part of the demonstration is drawn from induction; a defect common to all those demonstrations which are founded on this principle.

We must now pass over several chapters without any particular remark; viz. on the Reversion of Series; the Method of Indeterminate Co-efficients; on vanishing Fractions; and on Figurate and Polygonal Numbers: after which we meet with the solution of Indeterminate Equations, Diophantine Problems, and the theory of continued Fractions. With regard to the three latter, we must state that we consider this arrangement of them as not being the most natural; since they apply so aptly and directly to the solution of the former species of equations, that they undoubtedly ought to have preceded it, and to have been made the foundation of their solution.

The chapter relating to the doctrine of series exhibits a variety of the most simple rules and principles of summation, and many interesting particulars connected with the history of this subject; as well as a great number of the most curious results, drawn from the writings of Leibnitz, Bernouilli, De Moivre, &c. which render this chapter not only instructive but very entertaining, and particularly deserving of the reader's attention. — The chapter on Logarithms is also written with great perspicuity, and well calculated to instruct a student in the true principles of this useful and important doctrine. We shall give a specimen.

'—When taken in a similar but more general sense, logarithms may be considered as the exponents of the powers to which a given, or invariable, number must be raised, in order to produce all the common, or natural, numbers. Thus, if

$$a^x = y, \; a^{x'} = y' \; a^{x''} = y'', \text{ \&c.}$$

then will the indices x, x', x'', &c. of the several powers of a, be the logarithms of the numbers y, y', y'', &c. in the scale, or system, of which a is the base.

' So that, from either of these formulæ, it appears, that the logarithm of any number, taken separately, is the index of that power of some other number, which, when involved in the usual way, is equal to the given number.

' And since the base a, in the above expressions, can be assumed of any value, greater or less than 1, it is plain that there may be an endless variety of systems of logarithms, answering to the same natural numbers.

' It is, likewise, farther evident, from the first of these equations, that when $y = 1$, x will be $= 0$, whatever may be the value of a; and consequently the logarithm of 1 is always 0, in every system of logarithms.

' And if $x = 1$, it is manifest, from the same equation, that the base a will be $= y$; which base is, therefore, the number whose proper logarithm, in the system to which it belongs, is 1.

' Also, because $a^x = y$, and $a^{x'} = y'$, it follows, from the multiplication of powers, that $a^x \times a^{x'}$, or $a^{x+x'} = yy'$; and consequently,

quently, by the definition of logarithms, given above, $x + x' =$ log. yy', or

$$\log.\, y + \log.\, y' = \log.\, yy'.$$

'And, for similar reasons, if any number of the equations $a^{x} = y$, $a^{x'} = y'$, $a^{x''} = y''$, &c. be multiplied together, we shall have $a^{x+x'+x''\ \&c.} = yy'y''$ &c.; and therefore $x+x'+x''$, &c. $=$ log. $yy'y''$ &c.; or

$$\log.\, y + \log.\, y' + \log.\, y''\ \&c. = \log.\, yy'y''\ \&c.$$

from which it is evident, that the logarithm of the product of any number of factors is equal to the sum of the logarithms of those factors.

'Hence, if all the factors of a given number, in any case of this kind, be supposed equal to each other, and the sum of them be denoted by m, the preceding property will then become

$$m \log.\, y = \log.\, y^{m}.$$

from which it appears, that the logarithm of the mth power of any number is equal to m times the logarithm of that number.'

In a similar manner, Mr. B. illustrates the rules for division and the extraction of roots. Three or four other chapters remain in vol. ii., on which we should have offered a few remarks if we had not already somewhat exceeded our limits: they are intitled, On Functions; On Elimination; The Application of Algebra to Geometry and to the Doctrine of Curves.

We have only to observe in conclusion, that, admitting the plan of the work to be judicious, little can be objected against the execution: but we should certainly have preferred to see the practice and the theory more blended; in which case undoubtedly Mr. B. would have accomplished a still more reputable performance, and one that was still worthier of his talents.

ART. IV. *Parliamentary Portraits;* or Sketches of the public Character of some of the most distinguished Speakers of the House of Commons. Originally printed in *The Examiner.* 8vo. pp. 240. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1815.

ALTHOUGH essays transmitted through the medium of a weekly paper are seldom intitled to preservation, the author of the sketches now before us is, in our opinion, justified for having given them to the public in a separate form. They possess much more impartiality as to politics than we generally find in news-paper composition; and they would, in fact, have deserved considerable praise, had not the writer fallen into the habit of too highly extolling many of the worthy members for qualities which they must themselves be somewhat surprized to find ascribed to them in such a superlative style,

and,

and, by way of counterpoise, vituperating them loudly for trespasses which they and their friends expect to be touched with an indulgent hand. Our readers will therefore do well to keep in mind that the notices, from which we shall present them with several amusing extracts, are the composition of a pleader, and ought not to be altogether taken in their literal sense. The author is anonymous: but the circumstance of his dating from the Inner Temple, and still more the evidence of style, are sufficiently significant of his profession.

We begin with parts of his observations on two statesmen of very opposite habits, but connected in the view of the public, several years ago, by events of sufficient notoriety:

'LORD CASTLEREAGH.

'It is rather new for a ministry to have but one advocate of its measures in the House of Commons, — only one man to fight the pitched battles with the armies of Whiggism, or to ward off the desultory attacks from the adventurous marauders who start up occasionally from all quarters of the House, and fire their little vollies just loud and teasing enough to make their silence worthy to be purchased. Even in the autocratical reign of Mr. Pitt, his attendant spirits were allowed now and then to exert their small energies, and the voices of Lord Hawkesbury, Mr. Hobart, and Mr. Dundas, resounded during many an hour, through all the gradations of official explanation and recrimination. Poor Addington, indeed, who most wanted assistance, had nothing to support him, except the stiff nonentity of his brother Hiley, and the prattling dullness of his brother Bathurst, that illustrious pair, whose very appearance begets *ennui*, and has distended more faces into a yawn than ever Sheridan wrinkled into smiles. — But Lord Castlereagh is the universal and unsupported defender of every ministerial project. — Whatever, indeed, be the subject, up starts Lord Castlereagh, a sort of Pericles in miniature, and developes his tedious thread of ideas in a speech seldom less than of two hours' length :' for his Lordship seems to have an opinion similar to the Pharisees, that he shall be heard for his much talking. — He has no imagination, no energy either of thought or language, no spirit in his manner.—His involutions of sentences have been much ridiculed as rendering his meaning frequently inaccessible: and his adversaries and rivals have generally ascribed this obscurity to design, and call it a stratagem to escape from any open declaration of his sentiments, which might be in the way of future arrangements. I do not think so: I believe Lord Castlereagh to be sincere in most of his opinions, and more free from uncandid evasions than most of the political aspirants of the day: he has at least as much public integrity, and as strong claims to public confidence, as Mr. Ponsonby, and a vast deal more, I apprehend, than Mr. Canning. The perplexity of his diction I impute to that anxious laboriousness so common to a mind inquiring but not acute, whose ideas being indistinct, and half-formed, can of course never produce clear and perfect images.—His handsome person, his intelligent and well-defined countenance, his conciliatory tone, his graceful manners, his mildness, urbanity, and invincible courtesy, insure him popularity and even fondness from the House of Commons, in spite of his dulness and in spite of his political errors. Personal and even political animosity loses daily some of its rancour, from the influence of that gentleness which never irritates, and is as slow to be irritated; whose polish makes the sharpest arrow, which anger can shoot, glide from him harmless, and whose softness neutralizes the most acrid venom.'

'MR. CANNING.

'Among the foremost of those whose pretensions exceed their merits, and whose pretensions have been allowed, may be placed Mr. Canning — a gentleman whom Fortune, in a joke, has pushed above his natural elevation, to be pointed at as the quintessence of wit and statesmanship. — The great characteristic of this orator is his mock importance; he seems always to walk on stilts. Whatever be the subject, whether he is presenting a petition or delivering a laboured harangue, he always speaks in the same measured tone and set manner. He dares not be familiar; aware perhaps of the slender title by which he holds his reputation, he will not descend into the open and common area, but keeps himself from too near attack behind the formal entrenchment of a constant gravity. It may seem some contradiction to this to state that Mr. Canning affects to be a joker; but his jokes are all of the dry and scholastic sort, sarcasms which repel — not pleasantries which attract.—His great excellence is the school-taught taste by which he shuns all vulgarities in opinion and diction, and is enabled sometimes to throw a classical air over a common subject: his great defect is that he does not think. All he says partakes of the mustiness of memory; it is uttered with the tone of one who talks by book, and has none of the glowing freshness and cheering brightness of thoughts newly combined, or newly created by the genius of the speaker. — Mr. Canning seems to consider himself in his way as without a rival; but there are some young men in the House who may be expected to reach, and even overtake him. Mr. Grant, jun., with most of his defects, has a great deal more fancy and more learning; Mr. Peel and Mr. Robinson have his smartness and classical recollection, without the same injudicious assumption of importance.'

The writer of these sketches is an avowed Whig, but by no means disposed to subscribe to the wisdom of the arrangements made by the heads of the party; and he is quite out of humour with the Opposition for having as their leader a gentleman so little accustomed to exertion as Mr. Ponsonby:

'MR. PONSONBY.

'A man who fills that important situation should have extensive knowledge, commanding eloquence, perpetual vigilance, and last, though not the most trifling qualification, pleasing and conciliating manners. Let us examine Mr. Ponsonby by this standard. It is said that he was an excellent Chancellor, which implies that he has considerable erudition in his profession. — Be this as it may, the knowledge of law seems almost the only knowledge possessed by this gentleman. He does not speak very often, but in all the speeches which I have heard, I cannot recollect any happy historical applications; any illustrations from those arts or sciences which ought to be to a certain extent familiar to every gentleman's mind; any allusions borrowed from the sublime fictions of poetry, at once to embellish and strengthen the cause of truth. — Has he any eloquence? This question may best be answered by saying that he is never animated. — What, however, most unfits this statesman for his imposing situation is his habitual and apparently incurable indolence. A person who goes into the House of Commons for the first time must be rather puzzled with his appearance. He sees a stout and rather ungainly gentleman, not remarkably well dressed, with dirty boots and old unbrushed hat, sitting cross-legged, and his head almost sunk in his breast, as if asleep after the fatigues of a fox-chase. The sleepy personage then doffs his hat and rises; his unpolished manner and grim features hold forth but little promise: with the aid of jumping, and violent jerking of his head, which like the cadence of a mallet, which it imitates, seems a most appropriate exemplification of a knock-down argument, he gives utterance to about a score of sentences. The stranger expresses some surprise, and exclaims, "Why really that Country Gentleman says some sensible things: but pray, Sir, don't you think his manner not exactly the thing in a polished assembly?" What then is his astonishment when he learns that the person of whom he is speaking so disrespectfully is the chief of the aristocratical faction, and considered as the fittest person to conciliate and preserve the confidence of the people. — After all, I am not so foolish as to imagine or to wish that I could convince any person that Mr. Ponsonby has no claims to respect. He is a sensible, clear-headed man, with too much prudence to incur ridicule by any attempts beyond his powers. — Some persons think he has humour; he certainly has some skill in sarcasm; but then he exercises it on the paltry satellites, instead of bravely attacking the chiefs of the party.'

To each notice is prefixed a string of general observations, written, like the rest of the essays, with sufficient spirit, but likely to be passed over (as Fielding's introductory chapters often are) by those readers who are all impatience to arrive at the sentence about to be passed on the respective characters. The sketch of Mr. Grattan is preceded by some general observations on Ireland, and on the contrast afforded by a few eminent men, — such as Burke, Sheridan, and Grattan, — compared with the vulgar orators of their country:

' MR. GRATTAN.

' I would not have it supposed, because I have joined the name of Grattan to those of Burke and Sheridan, that I consider him as of equal rank. Burke is at an immense distance above both: but between the two last, though Mr. Sheridan is beyond question the superior man, I think I see some similarity,—rather however in kind than in manner.—There is about them at the beginning a conversational carelessness amounting almost to laziness, a sort of lounging indifference, which more than half conceals their strong feeling. On a sudden some thought, some word, sets fire to the train of their impressions: they fling away their sloth as Ulysses flung away the beggar's weeds.—I have not known Mr. Grattan in his best days; looking at him now, a veteran not much short of seventy, and observing that attic fire which still warms his heart, I will not presume to say that he does not deserve the high reputation which he enjoys.—Some have said that Mr. Grattan sunk in character by his transplantation into the British Parliament. I cannot think so: there is no man heard with more fond respect; and deservedly, for there is no man who gives more pleasure. Indeed, I know not a more gratifying sight than when Mr. Grattan rises: his petit person and fumbling voice at first awake no feeling but surprise that this man should be a commanding orator: in a moment you become interested by his gentlemanly manner, and warm though very subdued tone: a striking thought or glowing expression drops out as if by accident, and assures us that we shall not be disappointed. He then rises to the dignity of eloquence, and every expectation is answered. Such a man, therefore, must not be quoted as an instance of over valued merit.'—

'SIR WILLIAM SCOTT.

'His understanding is acute and inquisitive, and full of that excellent quality, good sense, by which the mind is enabled to detect imposition, and to stand firm against the violence of enthusiastic declamation.—He is a decided enemy to the claims of the Catholics, and this no doubt, with many, detracts much from the enlargement of his understanding. The Catholic Question, though not to be treated as some affect to treat it, as the easiest and the most a matter of course of any thing in the world, certainly does seem one on which it is difficult for enlightened men long to doubt. I wish too well to that cause to go out of my way to explain and justify a conduct which is so positively hostile: but it is only justice to Sir W. Scott to observe that his perseverance is not that of a vulgar bigot. He takes higher ground, and seems to think that the predominant party in a state should not suffer another to rise to sufficient strength to be able to conflict with it for the superiority. The reasoning may perhaps be correct, but the fear, on which in this case it is founded, seems entirely visionary, and arises probably from early habits and prejudices.—He began life as the tutor of his College, and his many improvements, together with his superior style of instruction, are still remembered there with gratitude and respect. He then became an active and learned Advocate, and has since presided in two Courts with an ability that has been equally serviceable to his country and to his own fame.'

These passages, and some others which we have deemed it unnecessary to extract, discover no slight admiration of the character of our Admiralty-Judge. A similar predilection has been said, though certainly without foundation, to have influenced the writer in his observations on Mr. Tierney. He rates, it is true, the attainments of that gentleman, both as a speaker and a financier, too high, when he asserts (p. 62.) that 'he could make the firm seat of Mr. Pitt to totter, and could shove the present ministry without difficulty from their stools:' but he is perfectly aware of the irreparable injury which Mr. T. inflicted on himself by forsaking his early friends.

' MR. TIERNEY.

'—Though Mr. Tierney unfortunately has but little weight in the House, yet from his abilities he is always heard with pleasure: nor is there any man who is treated with more external respect by a minister. This is but politic; for Mr. Tierney has a power of ridicule, and a caustic severity of satire, which can corrode the very heart's core; which, therefore, those who love safe skins are not eager to provoke. One thing there is which, independently of all the above-mentioned causes, greatly diminishes the confidence of Mr. Tierney's auditors: in his most serious and earnest speeches as to argument, there is an air of conversational carelessness and levity in the manner which seems to hint that the speaker is almost indifferent as to success.— This I have no hesitation in saying would be a most illiberal inference: the defect in question evidently arises from that coolness of temperament, which reasons rather than feels.—

' In a popular assembly, however, where for one man who thinks there are ten who feel, such a manner cannot fail to be detrimental, or at least useless, to him who adopts it.'

' MR. HUSKISSON.

' Mr. Huskisson is the Canning-financier, and in some respects may be said to have the advantage even of the Chancellor of the Exchequer: for though neither his knowledge nor experience are equally extensive, yet he can give a better and more effective account of what he knows and remembers. There is such order and perspicuity in his statements and his reasonings, that persons who are utterly ignorant of the subject conceive that they understand it while he is speaking, and believe themselves convinced when they have been only pleased. The pleasure which his speeches give is not indeed of the higher order; it is the sort of satisfaction which is felt at seeing an intricate knot cleverly untied, a puzzling theory perfectly developed. Those who can relish a neatly-demonstrated problem of Newton, or a well-argued page of Hobbes, would also feel much delight, though certainly inferior, at hearing the narrations and arguments of Mr. Huskisson. He is also of a liberal school, and shews as few prejudices and obstinacies as can well be expected from a man devoted to a particular science. —

' Mr. HORNER.

' Mr. Horner is the political economist of the Whig-party, though he deals rather in the principles than in the detail of the subject. He is a young man of very considerable talent, and his education appears to have been on a much larger scale than that of Mr. Huskisson. He is not so clear as that gentleman, but he can adorn the subject with a greater variety of illustration, and can even be eloquent where eloquence seems so little possible. Perhaps there is no man in the House who has equal general knowledge, together with equal power of expressing that knowledge. If his manner were at all equal to his matter, he would soon be a very considerable person; but his diction is delivered in a style unanimated and uninteresting. His appearance is rather heavy, and his tones are dull and unvaried, except now and then by a plaintive arrogance of voice, which at once tires and offends. It is to be lamented that he will not take pains to please as well as instruct: for he has great advantages, which might be easily improved to any extent. He has with all parties a very high character for talent, discretion, and integrity, and is very much and generally respected throughout the House. Could he add to these important aids the power of pleasing, he might look to much higher objects than he can now reasonably aspire to. A very little effort would suffice: a little more briskness of manner, a little more good humour in his tones, a little less gloom in his looks, would fully answer the purpose.'

Mr. Vansittart is said to stand at the head of our financiers, and to be a valuable assistant to any administration; with the limitation, however, that his labours ought to be confined to the cabinet, while more energetic speakers should have the care of developing them in the House of Commons:

' His intellect, independently of his technical science, is so scanty and so ill-furnished with materials, that he cannot command the most obvious illustrations, or the most accessible varieties of diction in support of any the most darling measure. Born to admire whatever is, it is only in the unsubstantial region of ciphers that he is an innovator: in all things else he is as irremoveable from the ground in which he has grown as the merest weed that ever encumbered a soil. — He loves the government, and so he would if it had been a despotism as by law established under that best of monarchs James the Second: he loves Christianity, and so he would if Pope Gregory still swayed the holy sceptre: he loves the administration of affairs as now regulated, and so he would if by some incredible reverse of fortune the reformers should chance to perch on the Treasury benches. Do I mean to accuse him of dishonesty or insincerity? From my soul I disavow so calumnious an imputation: I believe him to be an highly honourable and disinterested man: but I think him to be one of those feeble unenlightened understandings that dare not open their eyes to a light which they fear will be too strong for them, but are content to connive and wink so long as they themselves can tread along in security and peace.—

'For the rest, his public character may be dismissed in two words: on the one part, his utter inability to connect together half-a-dozen intelligible sentences would detract all respect from his addresses; but, on the other hand, his well known integrity, his primitive simplicity of manner, (for he looks as honestly prepossessing as the white hairs and unworldly-gentleness of the most saintly priest,) and, above all, his perpetual good nature, always secure him a patient and even half-affectionate attention.'

Mr. Wilberforce is known to the world chiefly as a philanthropist, but he is also much superior as a speaker to most of our debaters. His perseverance and eventual success in a great and most desirable object have cast a splendour around his public labours, which ought not, however, to prevent us from subjecting them to the same scrupulous analysis which those of younger and less distinguished candidates undergo. After having paid a due tribute to the benevolence of his views, the writer proceeds to ask:

'What then can be alleged against Mr. Wilberforce? Want of decision; arising, some think, from timidity, others say from want of high mindedness, seems to be his principal foible. Often will he support a position in a strain of eloquence to which the House is but little accustomed, and end (Oh lame conclusion!) in persuading almost every mind but his own.—The speeches, indeed, of Mr. Wilberforce are among the very few good things now remaining in the British Parliament: his diction is elegant, rich, and spirited: his tones (excuse some party-whine) are so distinct and melodious, that the most hostile ear hangs on them delighted.—Mr. Wilberforce is now verging towards age, and speaks but seldom: he, however, never speaks without exciting a wish that he would say more: he maintains, like Mr. Grattan, though not with quite the same consistency, a considerable respectability of character by disdaining to mix in the daily paltry squabbles of party: he is no hunter after place, though he is a little too much haunted with a passion for which he may quote the authority of St. Paul, of pleasing all men and of being all to all. I was sorry when, no longer able to retain the dignity of representing the greatest county in the kingdom, he condescended to sit as member for a petty borough. But something must be forgiven to an old man whose habits are formed. Parliament has been to him the scene of all his active exertions, of his pleasures and his glory. We can pardon the old dramatist who goes every night to take his unviolated seat in the pit: we sympathize with the old soldier who would hobble a whole day's march to see a review.'

We have not room to notice several of the less conspicuous of our parliamentary orators: but, after a careful consideration of the whole, we have no hesitation in confirming the observation with which we set out, viz. that the author evidently means to be impartial, and is led to trespass only by that warmth which insensibly kindles a mind that is accustomed to embody its reasonings into the form of arguments. —We conclude our extracts with an entertaining, we might almost say a ludicrous, passage, relative to some gentlemen on the east side of Temple Bar:

‘ CITY MEMBERS.

‘ The first and perhaps the most considerable is Mr. Alderman Combe: a gentleman of whom I am as unwilling as I am unable to say any thing derogatory: his consistency of conduct has ensured him the favour of his fellow-citizens, and the respect of all worthy men. Yet I must be allowed to regret that a man whose principles are so estimable cannot enforce them by any power of words, or of utterance. His delivery is so rapid, indistinct, and without a pause, that though I have heard him fifty times I would not swear to the authenticity of a single sentence. His speaking is like the writing of an uneducated girl — it has no punctuation, no stop, not even a comma. It puts you out of breath to listen; and yet it seems to cost him no effort. His face is all tranquillity, while his lips are precipitating, overthrowing, and destroying every word that passes them. —What a very different person is Sir James Shaw! Any one may see that he is a citizen and Alderman. How slowly and majestically the words march from his mouth: how impressive and solemn his enunciation! Not a particle escapes without an emphasis, and conjunctions and adverbs assume the dignity of moral axioms. Nothing short of the wisdom of Lord Bacon could be adequately and appropriately delivered in a style of utterance which, with mysterious portent, pauses between every word. — Ha! my good-humoured pleasant Sir, is that you? My ever-cheerful Sir William Curtis, I am glad to see you! If I say one word against you, may I never partake of your hospitality! What, though the world, my good friend, is fond of retailing your blunders and gives you no credit for even common understanding; the world is ever miſtaking: and I will undertake to tell it that no man in the city possesses more shrewdness and common sense, nor takes a juster view of common political squabbles. I will say that I know no man who, without affecting honesty and independence, is more substantially honest and independent. It is true that in all the greater questions which require extensive information and ampler views, you are no better than all the rest of the country-gentlemen and citizens, who think it safer to support the government than to sanction a speculation which they cannot understand. Nay — you frown — you are ungrateful: I have really said of you as much as you deserve, and shall expect to hear you acknowlege it when you are in better humour after dinner.’

The lamented Mr. Whitbread is the great favourite of this political delineator, and his parliamentary character is drawn with great force and success. He is, in brief, the person selected to bear the title of 'the Representative of the English people.'—" Alas! that such men *were*,—and *were* most dear to us!"

ART. V. *Histoire de Napoleon Buonaparte*, &c.; *i. e.* The History of Napoleon Bonaparte, with Sketches of the Character of his Lieutenants, and of the Senators, Counsellors of State, Ministers, &c. who have seconded him in his Enterprizes. By A. H. de Chateauneuf. Part I. 8vo. pp. 140. Deconchy. 1815.

WE cannot think that this work is worthy of ranking beyond the ephemeral productions of the season, since it is merely an abstract of the life of Bonaparte, taken from the official reports of his battles, or the equally questionable rumours circulated in private society at Paris. As the present is only the first part of the intended History, it comes no farther down than the peace of Leoben, and is, of course, filled with notices of the Italian campaign of 1796, together with such scattered reports as the author found the means of collecting with regard to Bonaparte's early years. We have here (p. 9.) a copy of the certificate given to him at the military school of Brienne at the age of fifteen; viz.:

> 'M. Bonaparte, born 15th August 1769, five feet two inches high, has finished his fourth course; he is in excellent health, of correct conduct and tractable disposition. He has been chiefly remarked for his attention to Mathematics, but he has also a very tolerable knowlege of history and geography. In elegant exercises he has made very little progress. He appears well fitted for the naval service, and is sufficiently advanced to be admitted into the school at Paris.'

Having entered as Lieutenant into the regiment of La Fere, Bonaparte soon saw his interest in embracing the Revolution, which opened to the untitled soldier the road to promotion. Paoli being brought over from England by the French government, for the purpose of acting in Corsica, Bonaparte, whose family was known to the veteran General, accompanied him thither, and remained in the island after Paoli had broken off all connection with his French associates. In the quarrels that now took place in Corsica between the republican and the royalist parties, Bonaparte sided with the former, and was removed, with the other members of his family, to Marseilles, at the time when the occupancy of the island by the British troops put an end to the ascendancy of the democrats. He now returned to his station in the Artillery, and was employed in the south of France, particularly at the siege of Toulon. He is said to have attracted the notice of his superiors by his skill in planting cannon against one of the outworks of the town: but the part attributed to him in the cruel scenes that followed the surrender of Toulon is by no means likely, when we consider the little influence which an officer of the rank of Captain could have with the delegates of government.

After the capture of Toulon, Bonaparte was sent with the other troops employed on that service towards Piedmont, to bear a part in the operations against the Austrians, and the King of Sardinia. The local knowlege which he acquired here was subsequently of great use in his Italian operations. After the overthrow of Robespierre and the Jacobins in July 1794, whether from the discovery of an improper correspondence with Paris, or from having offended his superior officers at Nice, he was removed from his regiment, and for a short time put under arrest. On obtaining his release, he came to Paris; where he passed a year in an attentive observation of the scene around him, and in making efforts to resume employment in a higher rank. He met, however, with a number of disappointments, in consequence partly of his want of respectable connections, and partly from a notion that had gained currency that he was one of the tools of the Jacobin faction. The latter was given as the reason for the refusal of a military board at Paris to take into consideration a new scheme proposed by him for victualling the army of Italy: which suggestion had been made through the medium of General Miranda, at whose house Bonaparte had left the explanatory paper. Miranda had never before heard his name, and, on describing him to the members of the military board as a "*petit officier,*" was surprized to learn that the unknown applicant was considered by them as "*un Jacobin et un intrigant.*" Bonaparte, however, continued indefatigable in his attempts to connect himself with men of influence, although he was obliged to live in a very humble style.

'In the severe winter of 1794-5,' (says the writer,) 'I often saw him in a reading room in the *Palais Royal,* belonging at that time to Girardin. This bookseller's wife treated him without ceremony, and on asking him to take a bason of soup was accustomed to say, "*En voules vous, Corsico?*" His brother Louis was so deficient in money, that he attended this reading room nearly a year without paying the subscription of five shillings per month.'

It was at this time that Bonaparte, despairing of his prospects in France, had thoughts of going to Constantinople with the view of offering to new-model the Turkish artillery. This scheme, however, was relinquished when the favour, which he had gained with Barras, opened to him the prospect of employment in the struggle about to occur between the Convention and the citizens of Paris. He commanded on the 13th of Vendémiaire (October 1794) under Barras, and soon afterward put the seal to his connection with that demagogue by marrying his discarded mistress, Madame de Beauharnois. This event took place at the time of his being appointed to the command of the army of Italy; a promotion so greatly beyond all precedent, as to excite surprize even in those days of sudden and extravagant change.

From this time forwards, the history of Bonaparte is matter of general notoriety; and the tract before us is of little interest, except in giving (pp. 121. 123. 125.) the observations of some military writers on his plan of tactics. He soon found the means of deceiving his opponents by shewing bodies of troops on particular points, and contriving to march the chief part of them very rapidly in different directions. By the help of this artifice, and by an unptiying sacrifice of the lives of men, he obtained great successes even over commanders who, like Beaulieu and Wurmser, were by no means deficient in talents and activity. These successes were sometimes, as at the battle of Lodi, purchased by unnecessary bloodshed; and at other times, as at Lonado and Arcola, they were far from being decisive at the moment: but the general character of his warfare was highly suited to a government that observed no medium, and was possessed of the means of rapidly filling up blanks in the armies. It was likewise but too well adapted to baffle the slow and unskilful tactics of the Austrians; who, after all their defeats, had yet to learn the importance of concentrating their troops, and of meeting the new system of their antagonist by one of corresponding activity. On some occasions, as in the rapid marches in September 1796 against Wurmser, and at the battle of Rivoli (January 1797) against Alvinzi, the daring tactics of Bonaparte were crowned with extraordinary success. His loss of men was much greater than that of the armies under Moreau and Jourdan: but the Directory did not hesitate to reinforce him, for the opening of the campaign of 1797, with two divisions of veterans; after which the Austrian army, composed in a great measure of new levies, was unable to make a stand against him, and Vienna was saved only by the peace of Leoben.

We refrain from noticing the ridiculous statements in this work (pp. 15—21.) with regard to the horrors ascribed to Bonaparte, at a time of life when his station was too humble

o give him the means of such formidable operations. Nothing
an be more vague or exaggerated than the rumours circu-
ated throughout France, respecting the outrages of the revo-
utionary agents. A tale of wonder was always sure of
urrency in that country; and the fashion of the day, since the
eturn of the legitimate government, is to vie in painting in
he most terrific colours events of which the impression would
e sufficiently awful, if they were exhibited in sober and faith-
ul lineaments. This is bad taste, as well as bad faith.
hould M. de Chateauneuf be induced to continue his history,
e will avoid, we hope, the insertion of such idle falsifi-
ations, and pay increased attention to moderate and authentic
atements.

RT. VI. *Outlines of the Anatomy of the Human Body*, in its
sound and (in its) diseased State. By Alex. Monro, Jun. M.D.
Professor of Medicine, Anatomy, and Surgery, in the University
of Edinburgh, &c. &c. 8vo. 3 Vols. and a Volume of Plates.
3l. 3s. Boards. Longman and Co.

N order to prevent misapprehension or disappointment on
the part of the reader, it is stated in the preface to this
ork that the author deems it necessary to give an account of
nature and object. We are accordingly told that, during the
ne of his being a lecturer in the University of Edinburgh, he
s been repeatedly urged by the members of his class to pub-
h an abstract of his course, and that the volumes now before
'exhibit the subjects which are explained at large in the
ogress of a session of six months' duration.' No doubt can
entertained as to the utility of the undertaking; and, if
e execution be adequate to the intention of the writer, the
blication must prove of great importance to the students of
atomy, whether connected or not with Dr. Monro's class.
e compilation which is generally called "The Edinburgh
stem" must probably, at all times, have been a very unequal
d motley performance; and it is now entirely superseded
the numerous improvements that have taken place, if not
mere anatomy, at least in all the collateral branches of
ence that are connected with it.

Dr. Monro commences with some observations on the
nposition of the human body, in which we have a general
angement of its constituents under the heads of solids and
ids, the solids being again subdivided into the two classes
hard and soft parts; the first class containing the bones and
tilages alone, and the second of course including all the
aining bodies. Bichat's division of the organs of the body

into the different tissues, as he calls them, is then noticed; and the resemblance is pointed out between the opinions of this anatomist, and some speculations of Dr. Carmichael Smyth in a paper which he published some years ago on inflammation. That the remarks of the latter are ingenious, and to a certain degree just, must be allowed: but we cannot admit that Dr. C. Smyth is to be regarded as 'the author of the new system, which has prepared the way to a more minute, accurate, and philosophical examination of the structure and properties of our different organs, and which has tended so much to the advancement of physiological and pathological science, which now indeed has assumed a new aspect.' It may be questioned whether this should not be considered as an extravagant eulogy even if applied to Bichat himself, and it is certainly quite inapplicable to Dr. C. Smyth.

These preparatory remarks lead us to the iid chapter, giving an account of the organs of Loco-motion; under which title are included the bones, cartilages, ligaments, muscles, tendons, and *bursæ mucosæ*. Each of these parts is then treated in succession; and first we enter on an anatomical description of the bones. The plan adopted by Dr. Monro is to begin by a general view of the nature and properties of bones, their connection with the contiguous parts, and the mode of their formation; the same course is next pursued with respect to the cartilages, ligaments, muscles, &c.; and he then enters on the consideration of the diseases of all these different parts. He afterward proceeds to describe the individual portions of the body; first the trunk, then the upper, and lastly the lower extremities; and in each division he gives an account first of the bones and their appendages, and then of the muscles and the remaining parts. This arrangement is, we believe, different from that of any other published system; and, in some respects, it may appear to be an infringement on the method which is commonly pursued, of keeping the description of all these various series of organs distinct from each other: but it seems to us much more likely to prove interesting to the student than one that is more strictly methodical, and it is a plan which would certainly be found convenient to the lecturer.

Since we cannot enter on a minute critique of every part of a publication so extensive, and embracing so wide a range of subjects as the present, we shall follow the plan which we have before adopted on similar occasions, of examining certain portions, and from them forming our judgment of the merits of the remainder. As occupying the first place, Dr. Monro's account of the bones demands our notice. He begins by

'general

'general observations on the bones of the adult,' in which he describes their external character and physical properties, their membranous coverings, and the relation which the bones bear to the other parts of the animal frame. He then enumerates the uses of the bones generally, or 'the purposes to which the skeleton is subservient;' as the basis of the soft parts, their defence from external injury, and the importance of the bones to loco-motion as affording a fixed point for re-action, and as entering into the mechanism of the joints. On the subject of the articulating extremities of the bones, we may quote the following observations, as a specimen of the author's method of illustrating the advantages resulting from the present structure of the corporeal organs.

'The increased volume of the extremities of the bones tends to render the joints more secure, — is conducive to the symmetry of the limbs, the bellies of the muscles being attached to the middle parts of the bones, and the tendons to their protuberances, — increases the force of the muscles which bend and extend the members, — prevents the risk of attrition, laceration, or compression of those muscles or their tendons, which are necessary for the motion of the joint, — and protects from injury or pressure, during our sudden movements, or changes of curvature, the blood-vessels and nerves in the vicinity of the moveable joints.'

We next come to a more particular account of the individual bones, and are presented with a 'table of the bones of the skeleton of the adult, exhibiting the divisions, names, and the number of bones which compose it.' Dr. M. then discusses the form, situation, size, and uses of the bones: their general arrangement, under the two classes of flat and cylindrical, is pointed out; and their various protuberances or processes, their depressions and cavities, and especially the articulations, are described under the usual technical terms, and with a sufficient degree of perspicuity. The author enters with minuteness into the consideration of the intimate structure of bones; and the account of their scales or plates, each of them composed of fibres, interwoven together so as to form a reticulated texture, which was originally published by Malpighi, is admitted to convey an accurate conception of their real structure. Since, however, the description given by Gagliardi of the claviculi or nail-like processes, by which these plates are connected together, is not confirmed by later observations, it might, perhaps, with more propriety, have been omitted in an elementary treatise, as being at least of doubtful authority. —The account of the internal spongy part of the bones, forming what is called the cancelli or lattice-work, next follows; and we have some judicious remarks on the uses of this structure:

'These round bones having strong forces naturally applied to them, and being otherwise exposed to violent injuries, have need of a cylindrical figure to resist external pressure, and of a considerable quantity of oil to preserve them from becoming too brittle.

'Besides which, they are advantageously provided with thick sides towards their middle, where the greatest forces are applied to injure them; while their hollowness increases their diameter, and consequently, their strength to resist forces applied to break them transversely.'

Dr. M. then examines, on mathematical principles, what would be the relative strength of two cylindrical bones, of unequal diameters, but consisting of an equal number of similar fibres, uniformly disposed round each. Three propositions are deduced from these data:

'1. That the absolute force of these two bones is equal, because they consist of equal numbers of similar fibres.

'2. That the absolute forces of all the fibres in each bone, have the same effect in resisting any power applied to bend and to break them, as if the sum of all their forces were united in the respective centres of the transverse sections, where the fractures are to be made. For, by hypothesis, the fibres being uniformly disposed in each, there is not any fibre in either bone that has not a corresponding fibre; the sum of both, whose distances from the axis of revolution (about which all the parts of the bone must revolve in breaking) is equal to two semi-diameters of the bone: consequently each fibre, and all the fibres, may be regarded as resisting at the distance of one semi-diameter or radius from this axis, that is, in the centre.

'3. Since the united force of all the fibres is to be regarded as resisting at a distance from the centre of motion equal to the semi-diameter, it follows, that the total resistance of all these fibres, or the strength of the bone, is proportional to its semi-diameter, and consequently to its diameter.'

We must now attend to a chemical examination of the component parts; and first of the marrow, which has lately been examined by Berzelius, and afterward of the bone itself. As in the experiments which had been previously made on bones, those of quadrupeds had been principally employed, Dr. Monro was induced to request the assistance of Mr. J. Davy, in the examination of human bones of different kinds; and we are accordingly presented with an account of his analyses of a great number of them, taken from different parts of the body, and in different states of the constitution. The results are arranged in the tabular form, and must be regarded as valuable additions to our knowlege of animal chemistry: yet the experiments only profess to shew the comparative proportion of animal matter and earth in the bones; and perhaps the method which was employed is not to be regarded as altogether unexceptionable, although, as the same plan was adopted in all the experiments, they may afford a desirable scale of comparison. Mr. Davy adds some general remarks to his analyses, and observes that, of the specimens of bones which were considered as belonging to rickety subjects, some 'contain more and some less earth than the same bones in their healthy state.' He farther informs us that

'"The proportions of earth and of animal matter vary in different healthy bones of the same person, and in the similar bones of different persons; that in old age, the phosphate of lime apparently increases in quantity in the occipital, and diminishes in the jaw bones; that the composition of the sequestra is much the same as that of sound bones; and it further appears from these results, that the hardness of bones in general is not *always* proportional to the quantity of earth present, though in the same skeleton this probably is the case; and lastly, the concordance of composition of two Negro skulls, both remarkably hard and white, renders it probable that the bones of Africans will be found to contain a larger proportion of animal matter than the bones of Europeans."'

The periosteum, or investing membrane of the bone, is then described, and the following are enumerated as its uses:

'1. To allow the muscles, when they contract or are stretched, to move and slide easily upon the bones; the smooth surface of this membrane preventing any ill effects of their friction upon each other.

'2. To support the vessels in their passage to the bones.

'3. To strengthen the conjunction of the bones with their epiphyses, ligaments, and cartilages, which are easily separated in young creatures, when this membrane is taken away.

'4. To afford convenient origin and insertion to several muscles which are fixed to this membrane.

'5. To assist in forming bone.'

After some remarks on the fœtal bones, containing an account of the circumstances in which they differ from the bones of the adult, we pass to the curious subject of the formation of bone. The author announces six quæries, as comprehending the most important objects of research connected with this topic: viz.

'1st, What is the nidus in which bone is deposited?

'2d, Is bony matter contained in the blood; and whether this is deposited in a solid state, or held in solution, probably by an acid?

'3d, What happens just before, and while the process is going on?

'4th, Whether is bone derived from the vessels of the periosteum, or from those proper to the substance of the bones?

'5th, At

'5th, At what time does the ossification of the different bones take place?

'6th, Are there any causes which accelerate or retard the process of ossification?'

The present state of physiological and anatomical knowlege does not allow of a decisive or satisfactory reply to some of these questions; and they are proposed rather as matters which it would be desirable for us to know, than as inquiries which we are capable of solving. The object at which the writer of an elementary treatise should aim, on subjects like the one now under consideration, is to give a brief outline of the opinions that are either the most probable in themselves or have been supported by the highest authorities, and to enter very little into mere speculations that have not some particular claim on our attention. We fear it will be found that Dr. Monro has not entirely preserved this cautious line of proceeding, but has been unfortunately led out of the correct track by the desire of adding to his father's reputation: in consequence of which he has quoted, with great complacency, some observations taken from lectures composed many years ago, which have little to recommend them in the present improved state of science. Indeed, the extreme anxiety manifested by Dr. M. to bring into view, on all occasions, the opinions of his relations, — however amiable it may cause him to appear, — does no credit to his judgment: nor, in fact, does he attain the end at which he labours with so much assiduity. The real merits of the Monro family are sufficiently well known, and are justly appreciated: but this attempt to push them so continually into notice, on all occasions, tends only to associate their names with dubious facts and ill-digested hypotheses, and thus to obscure their former well-earned celebrity. — This chapter, like all the others, closes with a valuable list of references to the authors who have written on the subject of the bones.

Let us now turn to the chapter on the Muscles. After some observations on the general uses of the muscles, their composition, the structure of their fibres, their blood-vessels, absorbents, and nerves, the Professor devotes a whole page to a quotation from his father's work on the nervous system, arguing against the opinion that the muscles are not the moving extremities of the nerves. This opinion was no doubt at one time very current, and was even adopted by some physiologists of the first eminence: but it is now entirely discarded, and we are persuaded that the author would have scarcely noticed it under any other circumstances. Yet it must be evident that the mere fact of the subject having been treated by his father can be of no consequence to any individual among his readers. Dr. Monro was not singular in opposing the old doctrine; it was among the many errors which gradually gave way before the improvements of modern science, and was abandoned by all anatomists, as it were by common consent. — The section on the Contraction of Muscles may be quoted as a favourable specimen of the author's manner.

'The muscles are extremely irritable, and contract when irritated.

'A power of contraction is the most characteristic property of a muscle.

'The whole of a muscle, or only a part of it, contracts itself upon the application of a stimulus. It acts only by contractions, and when the exertion ceases, it relaxes itself considerably.

'When a muscle contracts, the belly of the muscle becomes hard, rough on its surface, swells, its smaller fibres assume a waved or zig-zag appearance, and its extremities approach each other, and the muscle, in consequence of this action, draws the least moveable towards the more fixed part, to which its extremity is connected.

'When a hollow muscle contracts, it diminishes its cavity in all directions.

'The muscular fibre varies its operation according to the purpose to be served; for instance, when a muscular fibre is punctured, it vibrates, which is the fittest means of throwing off the offending cause; the alimentary canal, acted on gently by the food, performs a very complex peristaltic motion and anti-peristaltic motion; the abdominal muscles act slowly and steadily in expelling the contents of the rectum, but suddenly and convulsively in vomiting; the bladder of urine, from which there is a small outlet only, performs a slow and uniform contraction in discharging its contents; whilst the heart contracts with a jerk, and is drawn towards the more fixed point.

'A permanent and unusual degree of contraction in a muscle is called *spasm;* and when the contractions are quickly repeated, it is called *convulsion.*'

In the next section, we have an account of the division of the muscles into the voluntary and the involuntary, to which is added the intermediate class of the mixed. The muscles of loco-motion belong to the first class; while those of the heart, arteries, and intestines are cited as examples of the second or involuntary. It is then stated that some muscles, which are involuntary in man, are voluntary in certain animals; and the stomach of the ruminating animals is cited as an example: — but this is not an exact analogy. The human organs of digestion possess no part which can be compared with the ruminating stomach of animals: they can only be assimilated to their proper digestive stomach, and this is entirely independent of the will. Dr. M. afterward remarks, that the nerves which lead to the voluntary are much larger than those which lead to the involuntary muscles; and he then says, 'yet the irritability of the latter class is more durable and more readily excited than that of the former class.' It would follow, legitimately, from the connection and tenor of this observation, that Dr. Monro supposes irritability to be a quality necessarily depending on the nervous energy: we do not mean to say positively that it is not so, but every one knows that this is a point which has been warmly and ably contested; and it is therefore certainly incorrect to assume as a principle that which rests only on controverted authority. A remark is afterward made partly to the same purpose, which is more decidedly objectionable, that the integrity of the nerve is essential to the action of the muscle. This is the direct assumption of a speculative principle, which, if not clearly disproved by experiment, is at least rendered dubious.

The 'Observations on the Collocation of Muscles' are worthy of attention, and afford an interesting summary of the generally received doctrines on this curious part of the animal mechanism. The same commendation may be bestowed on the section intitled 'Strength of Muscles.' In order to ascertain the amount of this strength, it is necessary to examine with attention the manner in which the muscles are inserted into the bones; and we observe that most of them are so disposed as to act with a great mechanical disadvantage. By referring them to the lever, we find that they are to be considered as levers of the third kind, in which the power is applied between the fulcrum and the resistance. Dr. M. then proceeds to remark;

> 'But this loss of strength is fully compensated by the *velocity with which they act, and the extent of motion they produce;* for it is more useful to us to move a moderate weight with due expedition, and with a considerable sweep, than to possess the power of raising a much greater weight more slowly, and through smaller space.
>
> 'By this contrivance, which is also conducive to the elegance and symmetry of the body, *there is a sacrifice of force to attain velocity.*
>
> 'Thus, the insertions of the *biceps flexor cubiti*, and *brachialis internus*, are at an average not more than an inch and a half distant from the elbow-joint, the fulcrum on which the fore-arm moves; and therefore a weight placed in the hand, is at a distance eight times greater from the elbow-joint: hence, if 50 lbs. can be raised on the hand, it is with a force with which 400 lbs. could have been raised, had the muscle been applied to the extremity of the hand.

'Further, as the biceps and brachialis internus pull their origins downwards, with as much force as their insertions upwards, it is evident, that if we suppose these muscles to be thrown over a pulley, they could raise 400 *lbs. at each end, or in all* 800 *lbs.*, a weight which would certainly have torn these muscles in a dead person; so prodigious is the difference between the strength of the muscles in the living and the dead.'

The causes which diminish the force of the muscles are thus enumerated:

'1st, Half the power is exerted on a fixed part of the body.

'2dly, When muscles act in concert, they do not act in the same line; hence the force must be as in the diagonal, and thus the muscular contraction is divided between different muscles, and fatigue of any particular muscle is avoided.

'3dly, A great source of loss of power, results from the obliquity of the insertion of a muscle into the bone which it is intended to move.

'4thly, Perhaps there may be another cause of loss of power, owing to a muscle passing over two joints, where a considerable part of its force is expended in pressing one bone against another at the articulation.

'5thly, From the muscles being parallel to the bones they move, there must be a great loss of power.

'6thly, The fleshy fibres of a muscle are so disposed with respect to the tendon, as not to act in a line with it: hence a very great loss of power; and in like manner the general obliquity of the muscular fibres also produces, as in the penniform muscles, a great loss of power.'

The following section is intitled, 'Of the varied Direction of the Fibres of our Muscles, and of the Effect of this upon our Motions;' which the author informs us was written by his father. To this section is subjoined an appendix, in which the merits of Mayow are discussed, relative to an assertion of Dr. Yeates, that he was the discoverer of the fact that oblique muscles possess the advantage of performing more extensive motions than those which are straight are capable of doing. After a minute examination of such parts of Mayow's book as refer to this point, Dr. Monro concludes that Mayow has no claim to the merit which has been attributed to him by Dr. Yeates, and this judgment appears to us to be correct.

We next enter on the consideration of diseases of these parts, and first on maladies of the bones. These bodies are subject to diseases similar to those of the soft parts, such as inflammation, swelling, abscess, and gangrene. Under the head of abscess of the bones, the author gives us between three and four pages on the subject of *spina ventosa*, which he informs us are printed verbatim from a MS. of his grandfather. Afterward occurs an account of some diseases which are especially confined to bone; first, those arising from an excess of earthy matter, which are probably of rare occurrence; and then such as depend on a deficiency of the usual proportion of earthy matter. Of this latter description the principal is that which is usually denominated *rickets*. This the author conceives to be identical with *mollities ossium*, composing only one particular degree or variety of it. Both the names, however, he thinks should be retained, in order to mark the different stages of the affection, and the different periods of life at which they make their appearance; rickets being a complaint of infancy, in which the disease exists only in a less degree, while *mollities* occurs in more advanced life, and is attended with a much greater softness of the parts. We meet with the following information respecting the chemical state of the bones:

> 'It may be proper to add, that the bones of some rickety children contain so *very little* earth, that when steeped in water for some time, they are resolved into a pulpy matter; and they shrink by drying, very considerably, both in length and thickness. When, on the other hand, the bones from rickets have attained an unnatural thickness, then, *though softer than natural, they contain more earth than the same bone in its healthy state*, as has been clearly proved by the very accurate chemical analyses of Mr. John Davy.'

An unusual fragility of the bones is said to be attended by an excess of earthy matter; and we may conjecture that in this case some disease of the membranous matter exists, which deprives them of their power of cohesion. This state is said to be brought on by scurvy, lues, and cancer, and even by mere old age. Particular cases are cited, resting on the most respectable authority, in which this brittleness has seemed to be connected with these diseases; yet, on the other hand, it must be confessed that it has no necessary or even very frequent union with them. — Anchylosis, fractures, and luxations, complete the list of diseases to which the bones are subject. — A very copious set of references is added to this chapter.

Volume II. contains an account of the abdominal and thoracic viscera, and the absorbent system. According to the author's usual plan of proceeding, he first gives a detail of the form and structure of the parts, next of their functions and uses, and lastly of their diseases. The subjects of the chapters which treat of the digestive organs are: General observations on the structure and functions of these organs, and of the parts concerned in manducation and deglutition, including the jaws, the teeth, the soft parts of the mouth, the tongue, the neighbouring glands, the pharynx, and the œsophagus: then a description of the muscles subservient to these operations; and next of the abdomen, particularly of the parts concerned in *herniæ*, the coats and other appendages of the stomach and intestines, and lastly their blood-vessels and nerves. The organic derangements of the alimentary canal are divided into those of the parts necessary to manducation and deglutition, and into those of the stomach and intestines. The first are classed under the heads of alvine concretions, the effects of arsenic on the stomach, diseases of the villous coat of the intestines, tumours connected with this part, diseases of the other coats, stricture, schirrhus and cancer, *herniæ* of all kinds, and the different species of worms that infest these viscera. To complete this part of the subject, we have a chapter on the assistant chylopoetic viscera, the liver, gall bladder, spleen, pancreas, and omentum; and afterward one on the organic derangements of these parts.

The third volume is principally occupied with an account of the nervous system, the organs of sense, the blood-vessels, nerves, and absorbents, together with the uterine and fœtal systems. Its general arrangement, and the manner in which the different topics are treated, are very similar to the specimens that we have given above, and may enable the reader to judge of its merits and defects.

The opinion that we have formed of Dr. Monro's work is certainly favourable; since it contains much useful matter, embracing many of the modern improvements in anatomy and physiology, and affording in general a correct view of the present state of our knowlege on these subjects. It impresses us, however, with an idea of the diligence of the author, or of his means of acquiring information, more than of his genius; and we must regard it as an useful compendium or compilation, rather than as a performance calculated to throw any new light on science, or to extend its limits. Forty-six plates belong to it; which, although not splendid, nor particularly well executed, may be considered as valuable appendages to the text.

ART. VII. *The Literary and Scientific Pursuits which are encouraged and enforced in the University of Cambridge,* briefly described and vindicated. With various Notes. By the Rev. Latham Wainewright, A.M. F.A.S., of Emmanuel College, in that University; and Rector of Great Brickhill, Bucks. 8vo. pp. 100. 4s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard. 1815.

FEW things are more important to the welfare of this country than the state of the two leading Universities. If a sound system of religious and learned education be indeed instituted, and practically pursued, in those great bodies, the benefits derived from them by their native land must be almost incalculable. The volume before us will amply qualify its readers to form their own opinion as to the nature of one of the institutions in question: but the fact of the plan here laid down being duly carried into execution can only be ascertained by personal experience. While, therefore, we bestow considerable praise on the design of making the mode of education adopted at Cambridge generally known, we must allow that much yet remains to be told concerning that University, before a stranger to it can make a correct estimate of its merits. We shall analyse Mr. Wainewright's account of the course of academical study, which might, in some instances, nearly as well have been extracted from the Cambridge University-Calendar; we shall then subjoin our own remarks on several points of the system and on its practical enforcement; and we shall add a few observations on those irrelevant subjects which the author has chosen to connect with his main matter.

Mr. Wainewright arranges the different branches of learning cultivated at Cambridge under three heads: — Classics and General Literature: — Natural Philosophy and Mathematics: — Morals, (including Political Philosophy,) Metaphysics, and Theology. Under the first head, we find the following statements and arguments, intended to prove that sufficient attention is paid to the study of the classics at Cambridge; and that due honours and rewards await the scholar, who is distinguished by his successful application to this engaging department of literature. — 'Classical lectures,' it is stated, 'take place in every college throughout that part of each term which requires residence, and uniform attendance is enforced with a proper degree of strictness.' The best authors are said to be selected; and not only is the student required to explain the text, but an opportunity is given to him of hearing the judicious illustrations of a learned preceptor: 'who, in addition to the result of his own researches, can frequently avail himself of manuscript-observations not generally accessible.'

Another proof of the encouragement given to classical attainments at Cambridge is to be found, as the author contends, 'in the examinations for the several scholarships attached to every college; in which, with a few exceptions, a proficiency in Greek and Latin is considered as more essential than skill in mathematics.' The institution of College-prizes is next mentioned; and, as a specimen of them, it is stated that at Trinity-College

'There are two prizes for Latin declamations and three for English; ten pounds for the best essay on the Character of King William; and the same sum for the best qualified student among the candidates for their Bachelor's degree; and two smaller sums for the two best readers in chapel, besides various prizes of books distributed to those who compose the two first classes at the annual examinations. At St. John's College, prizes to the amount of more than one hundred pounds are annually conferred in a similar manner. Of these there is one for the best proficient in Moral Philosophy among the commencing Bachelors of Arts, and several for the best Declamations and Themes. In almost every college, a short weekly composition, either in English or Latin, here termed a theme, is required from those under-graduates who are in their first or second year's residence,' &c.

'Once or twice in the week, during term, according to the magnitude of the college, a particular day is appointed for the public delivery of two declamations by the under-graduates in rotation, to be composed in Latin and English alternately every year.'

The public incitements to classical distinction are introduced after these more private stimuli. Here we learn that three medals are annually distributed to such under-graduates as prove themselves to be the successful claimants by the following compositions: — 1st. A Greek Ode, in imitation of Sappho.—2d. A Latin Ode in imitation of Horace.—3d. A Greek and a Latin Epigram, in imitation of the Anthology and of Martial. These are afterward recited in the Senate-house, before a numerous assemblage (we suppose) of learning, beauty, and fashion. — 'Two medals also are annually given by the Chancellor of the University to the two best proficients in classical literature, amongst those who have just obtained their first degree.' It is a regulation, that 'no one shall become a candidate for these prizes, unless he was included in the two first classes of honours, when he was admitted a graduate.' The subjects of examination for this first degree (B.A.) consist of Natural Philosophy,—Mathematics,—Moral, Political, and Intellectual Philosophy; so that, according to the author's inference, 'the above regulation secures the attainment of most of the different branches of academical learning.' — 'A third medal has been added by the present Chancellor, the Duke of Gloucester, which is annually conferred upon the under-graduate who shall be adjudged to be the author of the best English poem, composed either in the lyric or the heroic measure.'

The next classical prizes are those which are given by the representatives in Parliament for the University of Cambridge, to the authors of the four best Latin Prose Dissertations;

confined to those who have taken their first degree. The Seatonian prize for the best English Poem on a Sacred Subject is restricted to Masters of Arts: the Norrisian prize for the best English Prose Essay on a Sacred Subject is offered to any candidate under the degree of M.A.; and the Hulsean prize, of a similar nature, to those who are not less that twenty nor more than thirty years of age.

'The public prizes, open to the competition of the whole University, amount annually to nearly nine hundred pounds; three-fourths of which are appropriated to the encouragement of classical literature and English composition; and the yearly amount of the smaller prizes peculiar to the different colleges may be estimated at about three hundred pounds, two-thirds of which are devoted to the same purpose.'

In addition to these public prizes, are not fewer than fourteen public scholarships, of which the larger part is designed to promote the advancement of classical learning and composition. The last of these, intitled the Pitt-Scholarship, has been recently founded out of the surplus money of the subscription raised for the purpose of placing the statue of that minister in the Senate-house, in the room of the Statue of Glory which stood there in former times.

Under the same division of pursuits, are classed the public lectures on Modern History, given with so much judgment by the present Professor; and the course delivered on the Laws of England by the Downing-Professor. A course of Lectures on the Roman Civil Law is also annually delivered by the Regius Professor of that faculty. The examinations in the several colleges (that is, in the two principal, and we believe now in some others,) terminate the catalogue of encouragements, "appliances, and means to boot," which belong to classical and general learning at Cambridge. These examinations include questions on History, Geography, Chronology, &c. &c. The liberty of procuring ten volumes at a time from the University-library, by the signature of some resident Master of Arts, and the additional opportunity of a similar access to expensive works of reference in the library belonging to the college of the individual, furnish altogether, it must be confessed, a splendid and extensive apparatus for the promotion of polite literature in this University.

The second division of academical pursuits comprizes Natural Philosophy and Mathematics. 'Attendance upon lectures on Geometry, Trigonometry, Algebra, Conic Sections, Fluxions, and the four Mathematical Branches of Natural Philosophy, in succession, is required in most of the colleges every day, and in others every alternate day.' We are informed, elsewhere, 'that the College-Lectures terminate in the *Principia* of Newton;' and that the term *Lecture* must not mislead the reader to suppose that no personal exertion is requisite on the part of the attendants but that of listening to their lecturer, since they are obliged to give orally, and sometimes in writing, 'as the less fallacious mode,' answers to questions that are calculated to draw out their knowlege of the propositions offered to their respective classes. — During the third year's residence, every student, who wishes to take a bachelor's degree, is required to keep his exercises in the *Philosophical Schools.* They consist in public disputations before a presiding *moderator*; and three questions, previously announced to the disputants, form the subject of their discussion. Of those questions, the first is usually one of the sections of Newton's *Principia*; the second, some point in Natural Philosophy; and the third, some moral, metaphysical, or political topic. These questions the *respondent* is obliged to defend against three successive *opponents*; and the disputations are carried on in Latin. Several of the public and private scholarships require a proficiency in the subjects of this second division; and two prizes were instituted by Dr. Smith, of Trinity-College, for the exclusive encouragement of the pursuit of the Mathematics, which are annually conferred after the examination in the Senate-house. To this class may be referred the public lectures on Physical Science; those of the Plumian Professor on Experimental Philosophy; those on Chemistry; those on the application of Chemistry and Natural Philosophy to manufactures, agriculture, and the arts; and those on Mineralogy. The Lectures on Botany have been of late years discontinued: but the Botanical Garden is said to be so excellent, 'that those who have access to it, and who also possess the works of Professor Martyn and Sir James E. Smith, *can well dispense with the assistance of lectures,* in acquiring the elements of this popular branch of science.' The late lectures on Anatomy, and on the use and abuse of Domestic Medicine, are said to have been any thing but scientific; and at present none are given.

The third and last division of Cambridge-Studies includes Moral and Political Philosophy, Metaphysics, and Theology. The work of Archdeacon Paley is the text-book on the first of these branches; on Metaphysics, Locke's Essay; and on Theology, various approved works are used as illustrative of lectures on the Greek Testament, given during one term in every year in some colleges, and on a particular day of the week in others. A series of lectures is annually delivered by the Norrisian Professor of Divinity; commencing with the

Evidences of revealed Religion; and proceeding to the History, Explanation, and Proof of the leading Doctrines of Christianity. Another course of theological lectures has been recently given by Dr. Herbert Marsh, the Margaret Professor of Divinity. The office of Christian Advocate may also here be mentioned, as requiring the annual publication of an English treatise on some sacred subject, during the period of six years for which it is tenable.

Such, according to Mr. Wainewright, is the outline of the Studies of Cambridge, pursued by all those whose object is to take their degree in Arts in the regular manner; 'and who' (as he continues) 'in truth constitute the great majority of students in the University.' Every candidate must have resided in Cambridge for the greater part of nine terms, occupying the space of three years. In the month of January of every successive year, all who have completed this required residence, and have kept the appointed exercises in the philosophical schools, are called to undergo a *general* and *public examination*, before they can offer themselves as candidates for admission to the degree of Bachelor of Arts; with the exception of those who graduate in civil law or physic, 'whose qualifications are scrutinized by their particular professors;' and excepting also 'the under-graduates of King's College, for whom an exemption is claimed by a singular and absurd provision in the statutes.' The candidates are previously divided into classes, according to the distinction which they have obtained in the schools; and three orders of honours are proposed to these competitors: viz. those of Wranglers, Senior Optimes, and Junior Optimes. Four days are appointed for questions and problems in Natural Philosophy, and in the various branches of Mathematical Science; commencing so low as with examples in vulgar and decimal fractions, and at length extending to the most difficult parts of Newton's *Principia*, Cotes's *Harmonia Mensurarum*, the Analytical Works of Dr. Waring, and the more intricate proportions of the Fluxionary Calculus. The remaining day out of the five is occupied by examinations in Moral and Political Philosophy, Natural Theology, Logic, and Metaphysics. Other methods, besides those already mentioned, are adopted to discover the slighter shades of superiority in apparently equal candidates: while those who are not ambitious of a place in any of the three orders of honours pass under the *emphatic* title of the ὁι πολλοι; although even there the *fortis Gyas* takes his usual precedence of the *fortis Cloanthus*.

We have thus, with the interspersion of a very few sentences of our own, abridged the account which Mr. Wainewright

wright has set forth of 'the Literary and Scientific Pursuits' of his *Alma Mater*. We shall now make those remarks on it which we promised, and to which we request the serious attention of our readers.

The *emphatic* title of the ὁι πολλοι, or the *multitude*, presents us with a clue to unravel the seeming difficulty which arises from the following fact compared with the preceding statement. The land is really not over-run either with mathematical or classical scholars: but how is this, if the magnificent preparations for literary and scientific attainments above described *are put in action* even at one of our universities, abundant in numbers as those bodies are, in spite of war, famine, pestilence, or any other cause of desolation? The ὁι πολλοι, in a word, profit no more by these preparations than the inhabitants of Ulubræ, or of Utopia itself; because these preparations are *not* carried into any thing like *general* execution, and produce therefore nothing like *general* results of great knowlege or reputation. As at our public schools, when a boy is diligent and highly gifted by nature in abilities, he has the best possible opportunity of improvement and perfect cultivation, both from the emulation excited on a large stage of action, and from the excellent qualificatiens of the instructors, so also at our universities, in the like cases, the like advantages are indisputably to be procured: but what is to become of idleness, or of the habits which are its inevitable consequences? Is there any self-acting energy in this learned and scientific system to restrain such a disposition in its growth, or sufficient discipline to cut it off at its maturity? Alas! no; and with real sorrow we may ask the author, and all his brother-advocates of the *non-reforming* side in this question,

> "*Quorsum pertinuit stipare Platona Menandro,*
> *Eupolin Archilocho, comites educere tantos?*"

if no better regulations (especially in the first or classical division of the 'Pursuits') are adopted to excite and to fix the attention of a large portion of the members of the university to the studies which he has described.

The subjoined facts and reflections will, we think, convince any dispassionate mind that much is wanting to render the Cambridge plan more *generally* efficient.

First, then, as to the encouragement afforded to classical study, it must unquestionably be allowed that, if a student comes to the University either well prepared or well disposed to make a considerable progress in Grecian and Roman literature, he is both enabled and stimulated to gain his object: but what provision is made for calling out inferior abilities,

for

for rewarding dull diligence, or for diffusing a *general* desire for classical learning over the University? The prizes and honours enumerated above are admirable incitements to the gifted few, who arrive from public or private places of early instruction, "rich already with the spoils of time," and burning to enjoy the more extended prospect from the higher Alps of learning. Hence the great names with which Mr. Wainewright has to so little purpose adorned his pages: these were plants that would have thrived in a desart; and which of themselves put forth mighty branches in the hot bed to which they belonged. From such men, no argument can be derived as to the *general* proficiency of their numerous fellow-collegians: but for these what due encouragement, or rather what due restraint, is prepared? If we are referred to the college-lectures, we answer that not only is attendance too slightly enforced, and therefore too irregular, but that, from those even who attend, enough is not required in the way of preparation. The lecturer does too much, and the pupil too little. If the college-examinations are quoted, we say that, whatever temporary honour may here be gained by classical distinction, it does not, as far as we have had opportunities of observing, lead to the more substantial college-rewards and dignities, in a degree by any means proportionate to those which are obtained by mathematical reputation; and as to temporary honour even, we may assert, we believe, without fear of contradiction, that the glories of the *first class* on these occasions belong exclusively to those who have mingled their classics with a very undue proportion of their mathematics. Lastly, when we come to the senate-house-examinations, and to that crown of academical exertions, the degree, what is then and there done to encourage the classics? Absolutely nothing. A candidate almost entirely destitute of classical attainments, nay, the poorest proficient im moral philosophy, logic, metaphysics, and theology, (for these *inferior* branches of study are made the subjects on the fourth day of the examinations, to open a sphere for the multitude rather than to try the aspiring competitor for honours,) a candidate, we say, of such a description as the foregoing may become Senior Wrangler. At all events, therefore, classical learning is left without encouragement at the highest, most public, and last occasion of inquiry into the attainments of three years. If, indeed, a certain mathematical honour has been gained,* then also a door is opened for two classical prizes. Can these, however, can all that we have detailed, be regarded as an adequate and *general* encouragement to the study of the classics at Cambridge? We leave the cause with our readers; only observing that whoever

ever has witnessed the barbarous disputations in the schools will, we are convinced, agree with us that the Latin there spoken must tend materially to injure the proficiency which it would seem intended to promote. Mr. Wainewright, indeed, faintly allows that, if the disputations were holden 'in the vernacular tongue,' it *might* be an improvement; and, stretching candour to its verge, he kindly admits 'that the objection that *classical literature* constitutes no part of the trial of the intellectual powers' (in the senate-house) 'is certainly entitled to *farther consideration*.'—What will the author say to the subjoined verities, which *perhaps* no argument will overturn, because, as we believe, no assertion can disprove? A great number of Cambridge-students pass their time in almost absolute idleness; and in a state so little affected by the grand scheme of preparation delineated by Mr. W. that, until the last term or two of their university (or rather town[*]) residence, they never think of applying to those studies which are declared to be necessary for their taking a degree. Let a stranger spend a short time in this University: let a well-informed and candid academician be his guide and interpreter: let the phænomena (*ocreata et togata, aut non togata potiùs*) of numerous grooms and coachmen be explained to him: let the tandems, randoms, horns, &c. be all construed into literal English: let his stay even happen on a common week, and Newmarket add nothing to usual and ordinary Cambridge; and what will be the astonishment of the visitor whom we have imagined? The language or at least the secret feeling of his friend we can readily imagine: "*Pudet hæc opprobria*," &c.

Is this the feeling or the language of hostility to an antient, venerable, and, with all its faults, excellent and useful institution? It is the feeling and the language of an ardent desire to see it more excellent, and more useful: to see the reins of discipline tightened, which, even in this *age of relaxation*, (for such it may be termed,) by judicious rules might soon be practicable;—to see, we mean, the *discipline of essentials*, and not of pantaloons and gaiters[†];—to see attendance on lectures enforced, and attendance on chapel still less frequently required;—to see the former, by the necessity of previous and complete preparation, rendered a really efficient exercise, and the latter, by its greater rarity, become a serious and a sacred duty, instead of a mere muster-roll; — to see the University-examinations so enlarged in their sphere of subjects, as to preclude the possibility of a hunting, shooting, tandem-driving, dinner-giving, and dessert-eating generation continuing to hunt, shoot, tandem-drive, dinner-give, and dessert-eat, for two years and more of their *probation* and *pupilage!!* and in the paltry remainder literally *get up* enough mathematics to take a degree which is to affix A. B. to their names through life, and to impose on thousands of His Majesty's liege subjects for scholars and we know not what of wonderful besides.

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[*] The practice of admitting more members than the walls of the college will hold is productive of the worst consequences; and here Cambridge might well take a lesson from the stricter and wiser laws of Oxford.

[†] We allude to some silly regulations of this kind; which, however, are partial, and, we trust, will be temporary.

During that enmity to reform of all kinds, and that horror of alteration, which mark the present æra, we should be blind indeed to imagine that any such observations as the foregoing will obtain a patient hearing: but the progress of truth, in all its slowness, demands that we should regard its certainty; and the fear of perversion and misrepresentation of their meaning can deter only the weak and unmanly from advancing what they believe to be true, however humble their voice may be. The natural re-action of opinion, in consequence of the excesses of a neighbouring nation in its inauspicious pursuit of liberty, has now rendered all proposals for amendment in established systems the objects of suspicion and prejudiced dislike. We have left no room to say any thing in answer to Mr. Wainewright's eloquent exordium on this subject: but, satisfied with opposing our *generalities* to his own, we shall merely remind him (quoting from memory) that " a froward retention of old customs" has been declared by a good judge to be " the most pestilent of innovations," and pass on to the remaining subjects of which we proposed to treat.

We would observe, cursorily, that Mr. Wainewright's account of the metaphysical studies of Cambridge, — or rather his attempt to point out the most objectionable parts in Locke's Essay, — is superficial and fallacious indeed. He is evidently unacquainted with the main subject of those works which he quotes as explanatory and emendatory of Locke's doctrine. Among the errors of Locke, he mentions the following as the principal: 'His opinions on the nature of language and abstract ideas; to say nothing of his chapter on Power.' The errors of Locke, principally discussed by Dr. Reid, Dr. Beattie, and Professor Stewart, are those relating to the origin of our knowlege, and to the theory of perception; and as these unquestionably are the *fundamental* parts of

Locke's work, how they can be considered as absolutely '*unshaken*' we are unable to conceive. Mr. W.'s subsequent remarks on '*a Common Sense*,' supposing it to be the doctrine of *all* the Scotch philosophers, are equally indistinct; and the phrase adopted by Professor Stewart, expressly to avoid the obnoxious term '*Common Sense*,' has been adopted in vain as far as Mr. Wainewright is concerned.

Not satisfied with extolling his *Alma Mater*, the author steps out of his way, on every possible, and we should have said, impossible occasion, to aim a blow at other institutions. That this is a feeble attempt (*telum imbelle, sine ictu*,) cannot lessen, but perhaps rather aggravates, the offence wantonly given to the respectable body of Dissenters by such a mode of proceeding. In the full pride of exultation at what he considers as the solid splendour of his own Athens, he endeavours to look contemptuously down on the fallen colleges of Daventry and Hackney; and then, in a strain of argument which Swift might have invented as an ironical specimen of logic, he strives to shew that, because these institutions are no more, *therefore* they contained the seeds of ruin in themselves; that they were chimerically constituted, in a word, because they have ceased to exist — '*Non est* — *ergo, nihil fuit!*' If the Latinity of this sentence would have sufficed for the author's favourite *schools of philosophy*, we are far from doing them the injustice to suppose that the reasoning would have been admitted. Has he wholly forgotten the operation of external causes? The friends of these deceased institutions may well say, "Is it nothing, *not* to have been established under the protection and regard of our common country? Is it nothing, *not* to have had the incalculably larger portion of rank and riches on our side? Is it nothing to have sprung up, as it were, in a foreign soil, and under an ungenial atmosphere?" Or may not Mr. Wainewright, thinking of the favoured Universities of this land, and speaking for them, himself inquire,

> "*Usque adeò nihil est, quod* nostra infantia *cœlum*
> *Hausit Aventini, baccâ nutrita Sabinâ?*"

It were a waste of words to argue, or to illustrate, such points; and we are almost unwilling to bestow a thought on the injurious attack made on the learning, and the theological learning especially, of the Dissenters, in another part of Mr. Wainewright's generally panegyrical, but in this instance acrimonious, little volume. What is gained to the Established Church by such unfounded insinuations? Or, rather, what is not lost to it? Surely the liberal and enlightened members of that communion must be ready to cry out, as of old, to their injudicious defenders:—"*Non tali auxilio,*" &c. If they have on any particular occasion out-reasoned or out-read their opponents, it must largely increase their triumph that those opponents have reasoned well and have read much; and, if one of those opponents were then incautiously to address them as Turenne addressed Marlborough, they might satisfactorily use his appropriate * answer. When Mr. Wainewright has added a few years to his present acquirements, or has grown richer in knowlege as well as in experience, he will regret, we think, his unprovoked and unnecessary attack on a conscientious and learned body of his fellow-citizens. Still more, perhaps, will he grieve at having betrayed that cause which he undertook to defend, by making an injudicious demonstration of all its parts;—by overloading with panegyric a system which, with all its acknowleged soundness and utility, *has* some rotten branches, and *is* capable of a more complete and more extensive application.

ART. VIII. *Poems*, by William Cowper, of the Inner Temple, Esq. In Three Volumes. Vol. III. Containing his Posthumous Poetry, and a Sketch of his Life. By his Kinsman, John Johnson, LL.D., Rector of Yaxham with Welborne in Norfolk. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Rivingtons, &c. 1815.

WHEN we heard of a new volume of Cowper's poems, we shared to a certain degree in the curiosity which the public in general will have felt at so promising an announcement: but the first sentence of the present editor's preface lowered these expectations to a very moderate height indeed; for it informs us as follows: 'It is incumbent on me to apprize the reader, that by far the greater part of the poems to which I have the honour to introduce him have been already published by Mr. Hayley.' The only poem, indeed, which Dr. Johnson gives us any clue to discover as now first making its public appearance, is the *one* of which we subjoin the title: 'Address to Miss ——— on reading the Prayer for Indifference.' From this poem being particularly mentioned in the preface under the above title, and from some expressions of praise bestowed on a poem in the dedication without any title affixed to it, we were led to conceive that they were *two* distinct performances: but we find that it is one and the same composition which the editor panegyrizes in both instances.

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* We are averse from any thing in the shape of personality: but Mr. Wainewright's readers seem absolutely intitled to a knowlege of the fact that he is immediately descended from a family of strict and respectable Dissenters. To his own conscientious difference of opinion, no Dissenters can consistently object:—but to his frequent and zealous volunteered attacks on the principles and connections of his relatives, decorum might have given a check.

Indeed, we cannot but remark the indistinct and obscure manner in which the additions to Cowper's published works, whatever they may be, are announced in this volume. Neither in the table of contents nor at the heads of the poems themselves have we any indications of the nature required. The editor seems, by his own account, to have taken much unnecessary pains to ascertain the exact dates of Cowper's different trifles; and if, instead of doing this, he had fairly and fully acquainted the reader with the sum-total of novelty in this publication, he would have discharged a more useful and simple duty. May we say that there is some little management in this omission; and that a consciousness of the insignificance of the additions sheltered itself under the general acknowlegement above cited, while it avoided an explicit statement of particulars?

We should not have so strictly noticed a seemingly small inadvertency, had we not observed (and with real regret we mention it) what appears to us a want of candour, or at all events a confused and unintelligible manner, in recording some very important facts and explaining some most interesting phænomena in the life and character of Cowper. To make this point thoroughly clear, or at least to state our own opinions on it beyond the possibility of misconception, we must enter into some brief preliminary considerations, and call the reader's attention to that which we consider as a very singular and unpropitious "sign of the times," if we may so denominate it.

In the course of our commerce with mankind, we have with pain had some opportunities of observing that cases of religious insanity are becoming every day more prevalent. Now it is assuming nothing, and accusing nobody, to assert that extreme, anti-social, and gloomy views of religion have in them something which naturally tends to unhinge the mind of the defender of such doctrines and principles. We believe it will also be granted to us, without much hesitation, that such persons must be particularly desirous of averting from their own peculiar opinions any charge of so serious a nature, as that of a tendency to produce these lamentable effects. From such general data, we advance to the particular fact, which any of our readers who have mixed in large societies must have remarked, that, if a person of a severely religious disposition has become liable to the imputation of derangement,

ment, zealous advocates of similar sentiments are not wanting, who will labour with all their might to prove that 'the original or exciting cause' was *not* religion; that there was some *taint*, perhaps, in the unhappy individual's family; that his worldly affairs were so hopelessly involved as to bring on despondency, and all its train of unreasonable feelings; or that some accidental and extraneous cause had suddenly operated to produce the fatal delusion. All these pleas we have heard urged, and in the face even of such "damning" facts as the following: that the poor wretch considered himself as one of the reprobate; that his imagination perpetually fed on the noxious aliment of irrespective and irreversible decrees of condemnation; that he fled from all business and every duty of his station, as of a carnal and impious nature; and that, in a word, while groveling in the worse than Egyptian bondage of gloomy superstition, (for what can such false views of the *religion of benevolence* be called *but* superstition?) he was so strangely bewildered by the erroneous and *twisted* associations of his own monster-breeding mind, as to fancy himself breathing the pure air of Christian liberty, and *then* actually emancipated from some previous imaginary bondage. This is but a sketch of too abundantly existing and too fatally influential self-deceptions: but we shall now proceed in our attempt to establish the serious charge which we have felt it our duty to make against the present editor.

After having described the extraordinary and morbid reluctance of Cowper to undertake the duties of the offices which in the thirty-first year of his age were procured for him; namely, those of reading clerk and clerk of the private committees in the House of Lords; and having mentioned his resignation of these profitable and honourable offices in exchange for another of less value, but less irksome to him; Dr. Johnson reminds us of the necessity for Cowper's undergoing an examination before the Lords, and of the consequent agitation, and, finally, the overthrow of this interesting and pitiable being's mind, on the occasion. He then states that his cure was effected in somewhat less than eight months, under the superintendence of Dr. Cotton, at St. Alban's: but that 'he remained with his amiable physician nearly a twelvemonth after he had pronounced his cure, and that from motives altogether of a devotional kind.'

'On this part of the poet's history it may be proper to observe, that although, if viewed as an originating cause, the subject of religion had not the remotest connection with his mental calamity; yet no sooner had the disorder assumed the shape of *hypochondriasis*, which it did in a very early stage of its progress, than those sacred truths which prove an unfailing source of the most salutary contemplation to the undisturbed mind, were, through the influence of that distorting medium, converted into a vehicle of intellectual poison.

'A most erroneous and unhappy idea has occupied the minds of some persons, that those views of Christianity which Cowper adopted, and of which, when enjoying the intervals of reason, he was so bright an ornament, had actually contributed to excite the malady with which he was afflicted. It is capable of the clearest demonstration that nothing was further from the truth. On the contrary, all those alleviations of sorrow, those delightful anticipations of heavenly rest, those healing consolations to a wounded spirit, of which he was permitted to taste, at the periods when uninterrupted reason resumed its sway, were unequivocally to be ascribed to the operation of those very principles and views of religion, which, in the instance before us, have been charged with producing so opposite an effect. The primary aberrations of his mental faculties were wholly to be attributed to other causes. But the time was at hand, when, by the happy interposition of a gracious Providence, he was to be the favoured subject of a double emancipation. The captivity of his reason was about to terminate; and a bondage, though hitherto unmentioned, yet of a much longer standing, was on the point of being exchanged for the most delightful of all freedom,

———— " A liberty unsung
By poets, and by senators unprais'd:"
* * * * * * *
E'n " liberty of heart, derived from heav'n;
Bought with His blood who gave it to mankind,
And seal'd with the same token!"

To the invaluable blessing of such a change he was as yet a stranger. He had been for some time convinced, and that on scriptural grounds, how much he stood in need of it, from a perception of the fetters with which, so long as he was capable of enjoying them, the pleasures of the world and of sense had bound his heart, but, till the moment of his affliction, he had remained spiritually a prisoner. The hour was now come when his prison-doors were to be unfolded: when "he that openeth and no man shutteth," was to give him a blessed experience of what

" *Is* liberty :— a flight into his arms
Ere yet mortality's fine threads give way,
A clear escape from tyrannizing sin,
And full immunity from penal woe!" '

Now we would here ask the editor, and we request general attention to the question, *What is* the bondage 'which was on the point of being exchanged for the most delightful of all freedom?' — *What*, we beg permission to ask once more, *is* the bondage? Is it the bondage of sin? Where are the evidences of this amiable but unfortunately nervous man being under such a bondage? Is it the bondage of infidelity? Where is the evidence of this?—In a word, either let the accusation against Cowper (for such it is, however unintentional) be made *distinct*, or let it be left to his own poetical and doubtless too severely self-condemning imagination. So far from being too much bound to this world, he seems (and it is with the most melancholy interest that his character must here be considered) to have been unreasonably too little bound to it; and whether we contemplate him at this beginning of his abstraction from the more active duties of life, or at the end when he even condemns himself for his application to his Homer, we see but one great pervading error, to which, however often it may have been superseded by more rational and happy views, all the minor aberrations may, probably, be traced with more or less distinctness.

The very interesting visit from his brother to the poet is next mentioned; and in the account given of it, the '*apprehensions*' felt by Cowper (and which evidently haunted him to the last) are clearly recognized: but the following passages are, in our judgment, much too objectionable to pass unnoticed: "*If it be a delusion*," he exclaimed to his brother, "then am I the happiest of beings!" It is impossible to read such sentences without the strongest emotions of compassion.

> 'This, however, was but a part of the happiness which the memorable day we are now arrived at had in store for the interesting and amiable Cowper. Before he left the room in which he had breakfasted, he observed a Bible lying in the window-seat. He took it up. Except in a single instance, and that two months before, he had not ventured to open one, since the early days of his abode at St. Alban's. But the time was now come when he might do it to purpose. The profitable perusal of that divine book had been provided for in the most effectual manner, by the restoration at once of the powers of his understanding, and the superadded gift of a spiritual discernment. Under these favourable circumstances, he opened the sacred volume at that passage of the Epistle to the Romans where the Apostle says, that Jesus Christ is "set forth to be a propitiation through faith in his blood, to declare his righteousness for the remission of sins that are past, through the forbearance of God." To use the expression employed by Cowper himself in a written document from which this portion of his history is extracted, he "received strength to believe it;" to see the suitableness of the atonement to his own necessity, and to embrace the gospel with gratitude and joy.'

We would here desire our readers only to understand us as calling their attention to the mysterious phrase '*superadded gift of spiritual discernment;*' and to the very censurable countenance given to a practice liable to the grossest abuses, or rather directly leading to them, we mean that of making out of passages in the Bible, opened with or without such design, a species of *Sortes Virgilianæ*, or of inquiry into our temporal or spiritual condition. We have observed, indeed, throughout this preface, a disposition to ascribe the most ordinary occurrences of life to the *immediately* directing hand of Providence, in a way little calculated to increase our reverence for so aweful a subject, or to produce any rationally pious effect on the mind. Whether a journey of a few miles or a change of residence from one county to another be mentioned, the *designs* and *intentions* of the Deity are as freely introduced as if it were really a worthy occasion for such an interposition. We find here no discrimination between the *digni* and the *indigni divino vindice nodi.* We must again more particularly dwell on the unmeaning or the arrogant assumption of '*the gift of spiritual discernment*,' (an assumption which we are far from thinking that the unhappy being would have himself suggested,) for a person just recovered from *such* an illness as that of poor Cowper. If an idea of this sort be suffered to pass uncensured, it were endless to calculate the false hopes and the inflated enthusiasm which may be engendered in well-meaning but ill-directed minds by its encouragement. If we suppose that the expression refers only to a greater inclination to devout reading, and, in consequence of that habit, a greater proficiency in sacred knowlege, then it amounts merely to a very improper way of speaking, and deserves the epithets of 'mysterious' and 'unmeaning,' which, in the alternative of its not being 'arrogantly' intended, we have already bestowed on it.

There is a *third* interpretation which the editor may affix to his term of '*bondage*.' He may mean "*the bondage of fear*." If this be the case, we can indeed understand him: but the point is then given up concerning *one* of the causes at least of Cowper's malady; and when it confessedly was an accessory cause, and from its very nature of the first magnitude, the question whether it was 'originally' or primarily 'exciting' becomes of much less importance. If it constantly recurred;—if we trace it, from the first to the last, disturbing him with its dark shadows, and "casting out perfect love," through every period of his melancholy life;—if we read it in the '*apprehensions*' mentioned in his interview with his brother;—if we mark it in the overstrained spirit of devotion which induced a person, whose belief in Christianity or whose general correctness of moral conduct we have no publicly assigned reason to doubt, in his thirty-fourth year to intitle some religious hymns "Specimens of his FIRST Christian Thoughts;"—if we follow it in the frequent and unreasonable interruptions of his mental comfort on such subjects, in his 'studious abstinence' at certain periods from every allusion of a sacred nature, in the judicious but *convincing* measures adopted by his kinsman to secure his presence on occasions of family devotion, in his sad confession that his "time is spent chiefly in moping and musing, and *forecasting the fashion of uncertain evils*," and, finally, in his 'passionate entreaties' on the bed of death to his kinsman 'that he would desist from any further observations relating to the happiness prepared for *him* by his Redeemer;'—if, we say, all this chain of evidence be accurately examined, what link is wanting to prove that this lamented insanity was of a religious nature; that, whether the spark which excited it can be traced to that cause or not, it soon became the leading and absorbing volume of pernicious flame; and that all other causes were *then at least* only accessory in supplying fresh materials for the devouring element to consume, and gather strength in consuming?

After such a demonstration as the above, furnished by the editor himself, we have little inclination to attend to his eulogy on 'the interesting and scriptural character of those views of religion which Cowper had embraced.' Doubtless, in his lucid intervals, of shorter or longer continuance, the unhappy sufferer was enabled to cast off *some of* the *bondage* of his gloomy and irrational fears: but, had it been otherwise, the intervals would *not* have been lucid; and this therefore proves but little to the purpose. What that purpose is on the part of the editor we cannot conjecture, unless it be to recommend (which we can hardly imagine) those views of religion as scriptural which in his reasonable hours this interesting man espoused. Surely this would be most unsafe. Is it not likely in these instances that *some* tincture of the past insanity will mark one of the principal causes of it? At all events, should we not judge of the opinions of such a person, on such a subject, with extreme caution and hesitation, and doubt again and again before we *fully* approved them? To talk of '*spiritual discernment*' in such a case is something too much; and when this is done in one sentence, and in another the editor thus expresses himself, 'where it pleased God *to throw a veil over the mental and spiritual consistency* of this excellent and afflicted man, it would ill become us rudely to invade the divine prerogative by attempting to withdraw it;' when two such sentences occur in one preface, and the author is constantly introducing the *designs* of the Deity, we are quite willing to leave the decision of the question in the hands of our readers, and to proceed with a much more agreeable although much less important subject, namely, the literary merit of the collection of Poems before us.

On this merit the public are so generally agreed at present, that, as the great Johnson said on another occasion, " censure would be vain, and praise useless:" but we may be allowed to add a few words, explanatory of our opinion of the causes on which the popularity of Cowper principally rests; and to throw out a few hints, which, on a matter of taste, may be admissible.

No book, we think, was ever permanently popular without decided merit of one kind or another; and perhaps even for the popularity of one generation, (that of *a few seasons only* deserves neither critical nor philosophical notice,) some clear and undisputed indications of genius, properly so denominated, are requisite. That Cowper possessed genius, nobody can deny, and we have always been foremost to declare; that he possessed scholarship, also, is certain; with a considerable command of nervous and correct expression, and occasionally a good flow of versification: but all these qualities, accompanied by such incessant *drawbacks* either in his prosaic or his inharmonious passages, would not have been sufficient to secure the popularity which he has acquired. In an age of more nice judgment than the present in poetical composition, his defects would have excluded him from a high station in the list of poets. The judges of a period accustomed to the majestic harmony and highly animated expression of Dryden, or to the rich glow and melodious artifice of Pope, would have allowed admirable sense, tenderness, and, frequently, other requisites of poetry to Cowper: but they would have turned with impatience from his familiar and often vulgar language; and they would have condemned as equally unclassical and unmusical his licentious pauses and rough unmeasured cadences of song. Were we perfectly sure that our own times were, *in truth*, as much stricter and purer than those of our ancestors as they profess themselves to be, we should unhesitatingly assert that it was from our improved tone of morality that so moral a writer as Cowper could, in spite of all his defects, become so great a favourite with us. Perhaps it is from the *tone* in question that the phænomenon is to be solved: but, not to pursue farther so flattering an idea, we are convinced, from the toleration which is extended at present to every species of irregular and even barbarous composition, that, however improved our morals may be, neither our ears are so delicate nor our tastes so refined as they were wont to be in this island. Among the modern men of genius who have contributed to lower poetry from its high and holy station in older times, — we are speaking only of the power of figurative language and of lofty melody, — we conceive that Cowper holds a prominent place. In his hands, the art of verse is no longer a dignified and mysterious gift, raising its possessor above the applause because above the feeling of the vulgar. So far from the antient Ἑκας, Ἑκας, ὅστις ἀλιτρος being the motto and the mark of his writings, his Muse stands at the door of her cottage, inviting every one to come in and behold the nakedness of the land: — nay more, she offers him pen, ink, and paper; and opening several pages of her votary's compositions, she bids him sit down, whoever he may be, and write on in the same style and manner. The receipt which she gives him (and she ought to have a patent for it) is to write "whatever comes uppermost," in the first language that occurs; and then, as English conversation abounds in iambic verse, (πλειστα γαρ ἐν τη διαλεκτω προς ἀλληλους ἰαμβεια λεγομέν,) it is most probable that he will produce, without any conscious effort, a very pretty *essay* in verse. We are far, indeed, from saying that one in a thousand, perhaps, would run without effort into such trains of excellent reflection, and often of poetical imagination, as distinguish many of the Poems of Cowper: but we do mean to assert that, as neither the fairy charm of fancy nor the ardent voice of passion, nor yet the varied but ever enchanting music of our nobler poets, can be found in a large portion of this writer's pages, very ordinary persons might in this rhyming age write as good *verse* as he has often done. We appeal for the proof of this assertion to his original volumes, *passim;* to particular passages even in his best poems; and to his Homer throughout. This last work is indeed sufficient to convince any candid and competent judge of the question, that the higher honours of poetry, the "*mens sublimior atque os magna sonaturum,*" could never by any possibility belong to Cowper. He has added fresh ivy to the wreath of the didactic Muse; and the branches which he has interweaved will long bear his name, and bear it with high reputation: — but his injudicious admirers have endeavoured to raise him to a rank into which he can never with justice be admitted *. They refer to his popularity as a proof of their opinion: but, setting aside for a moment the objection to this argument which may be deduced from *waiting a little longer*, we would reply, as before, that this popularity is *principally* owing to the moral and religious tendency of his works. As Mr. Hayley justly says in his Epitaph, “ His *virtues*” (for *virtues*, numerous indeed, this victim of unreasonable self-reproach most undoubtedly possessed,)

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* Some readers, who may recollect our former commendations of Cowper's poems, may perhaps ascribe to us a degree of inconsistency in the objections to him which we are now making: but a close and fair discrimination will shew no farther difference than *such as* the subsequent writings of this poet and a more deliberate *consideration* of them will warrant.

“ His *virtues* form'd the magic of his song.”

It is full time to pay attention to the small portion of that song with which the public is not familiar. — To begin, therefore, with the *doubly* panegyrized poem which the editor has introduced to us, as before mentioned.

In this ‘ Address to Miss —— on reading the Prayer for Indifference,’ we own that we cannot discover the merit which the partial editor has detected. It contains, indeed, many very natural and proper reflections on the ingratitude and the absurdity of steeling the heart against *Sensibility* and all her soothing and social emotions: but our readers shall judge from some extracts whether this unexceptionable train of thought be expressed in highly poetical language, or clothed in very delightful images.

‘ ON READING THE PRAYER FOR INDIFFERENCE. [1762.] [*]

‘ And dwells there in a female heart,
By bounteous heav'n design'd
The choicest raptures to impart,
To feel the most refin'd —

‘ Dwells there a wish in such a breast
Its nature to forego,
To smother in ignoble rest
At once both bliss and woe!

‘ Far be the thought, and far the strain,
Which breathes the low desire,
How sweet soe'er the verse complain,
Tho' Phœbus string the lyre.

‘ Come then fair maid (in nature wise)
Who, knowing them, can tell
From gen'rous sympathy what joys
The glowing bosom swell.

‘ In justice to the various pow'rs
Of pleasing, which you share,
Join me, amid your silent hours,
To form the better pray'r.

‘ With lenient balm, may *Ob'ron* hence
To fairy-land be driv'n;

‘ [*] For Mr. Greville's Ode, see Ann. Register, Vol. v. p.202.’

With ev'ry herb that blunts the sense
Mankind receiv'd from heav'n.

' " Oh! if my Sov'reign Author please,
Far be it from my fate,
To live, unblest, in torpid ease,
And slumber on in state.

' Each tender tie of life defied
Whence social pleasures spring,
Unmov'd with all the world beside,
A solitary thing —"

' Some Alpine mountain, wrapt in snow,
Thus braves the whirling blast,
Eternal winter doom'd to know,
No genial spring to taste.

' In vain warm suns their influence shed,
The zephyrs sport in vain,
He rears unchang'd his barren head,
Whilst beauty decks the plain.'

This is all very even, and very unobjectionable; and so are the majority of the author's *bijoux* of this nature: but, in our judgment, it contains nothing which might not have been composed by any well-educated person of good feeling and good sense, with the slightest tinge of poetry about him, in the three kingdoms.

Some of the little stanzas are more vigorous:

' Peace to the phlegm of sullen elves,
Who, if from labour eas'd,
Extend no care beyond themselves,
Unpleasing and unpleas'd.'

Again, — among the praises and products of *Sensibility*:

' The arts come smiling in the close,
And lend celestial fire —
The marble breathes, the canvas glows,
The Muses sweep the lyre.—

' So Pity shall take Virtue's part,
Her natural ally;
And, fashioning my soften'd heart,
Prepare it for the sky.'

We have again the same feebleness as before in the following lines; and indeed a something like mawkishness added to it, which is better felt than described:

' Let no low thought suggest the prayer,
Oh grant, kind Heav'n to me,
Long as I draw ethereal air,
Sweet Sensibility.'

> 'The jocund loves in Hymen's band,
> With torches ever bright,
> And generous Friendship hand in hand,
> With Pity's *watry sight.*'

We turn to the translations from Milton's Latin poems, some portions of which are faithfully and elegantly rendered; though, in other cases, we think that neither the fancy nor the flow of the original is adequately transfused into the English. We will select a few specimens: but we have before spoken at length of these versions when separately published. See Rev. Vol. lviii. N. S. p. 294.

The second Elegy, 'On the University-beadle,' is translated with sufficient care for its subject; and the third, 'On the Bishop of Winchester,' is one of the best versions in the whole collection. We extract the subjoined poetical passage:

> 'Pour'd out in tears I thus complaining said:
> " Death, next in pow'r to him, who rules the dead!
> Is't not enough that all the woodlands yield
> To thy fell force, and ev'ry verdant field,
> That lilies, at one noisome blast of thine,
> And ev'n the Cyprian queen's own roses, pine,
> That oaks themselves, although the running rill
> Suckle their roots, must wither at thy will,
> That all the winged nations, even those,
> Whose heav'n-directed flight the future shows,
> And all the beasts, that in dark forests stray,
> And all the herds of Proteus are thy prey.
> Ah envious! arm'd with pow'rs so unconfin'd!
> Why stain thy hands with blood of human kind?
> Why take delight, with darts that never roam,
> To chase a heav'n-born spirit from her home?" '

The only part of the above version which we cannot approve is that which purposes to translate the couplet

> " *Nec sinis, ut semper fluvio contermina quercus*
> *Miretur lapsus prætereuntis aquæ,*"

> 'That oaks themselves, although the running rill
> Suckle their roots, must wither at thy will.'

If the author was induced by Tom Warton's judgment, or by his own, to condemn the luxuriant image in the original as puerile, still he should have retained it, as highly characteristic of Milton's youthful fancy; and, however he himself might have *wondered* at the oak, he should have suffered the oak to *wonder* at the water.

The opening distich of the version of the fourth epistle (to Milton's early Tutor, Thomas Young,) is in Cowper's broken manner, if we may so express ourselves, and does not represent the rapid fluency of the original with the least justice.

> " *Curre per immensum subitò, mea litera, pontum,*
> *I, pete Teutonicos læve per æquor agros.*"

> ' Hence my epistle — skim the deep — fly o'er
> Yon smooth expanse to the Teutonic shore.'

Thus also, by losing the connecting particles, (a very common fault with translators,) even in more spirited passages, he sometimes loses the *exact* spirit of his original. For example:

> ' O city, founded by Dardanian hands,
> Whose towering front the circling realm commands.'

Although unobjectionable as an English couplet, these lines do not truly represent

> " Tuque urbs *Dardaniis, Londinum, structa colonis*
> *Turrigerum latè conspicienda caput,*" &c.

We must, however, shorten our remarks on translations which have been already noticed by us, and have now been before the public in several shapes; and, after some few more strictures, we shall advance to Cowper's own Latin compositions, and close this protracted article.

In the beautiful elegy on Spring, in which the Earth so fancifully and feelingly addresses the Sun, Cowper has lost the real charm of his archetype in one exquisite passage.

> ' Come, lay thy evening glories on my breast,'

though a very spirited line, does not express the elegance and tenderness, if we may so call it, of the simpler original:

> " *Huc ades, et gremio lumina pone meo.*"

We observe a coarseness in the beginning of the sixth elegy, which Cowper has softened, but he has left his own exordium liable to other objections; — we have here again the broken and aukward versification and expression to which we before adverted, which pervades the translation of Homer, and which too often interrupts the present versions. We conclude this portion of our remarks with a slight notice of the version of the seventh elegy, one of the most interesting of the whole.

The pleasing apparition of Love is not introduced with much success by Cowper. He was betrayed, the poet says, by his quiver, &c.

> " *Prodidit et facies, et dulcè minantis ocelli,*
> *Et quicquid puero dignum et Amore fuit.*"

> ' Nor less his infant features, *and the sly*
> *Sweet intimations* of his threatening eye.'

Again,

> " *At mihi risuro tonuit ferus ore minaci,*
> *Et mihi de puero non metus ullus erat.*"
>
> ' That thus a child *should bluster in my ear,*
> Provok'd my laughter, more than mov'd my fear.'

The first line also of the ensuing couplet is very unjust to the pathetic and delicate turn of the original:

> ' Remove! — No — grant me still this raging woe —
> Sweet is the wretchedness that lovers know.'
>
> " *Deme meos tandem, verùm nec deme, furores;*
> *Nescio cur, miser est suavitèr omnis amans.*"

Such beauties are indeed difficult to transfuse; and yet, on the whole, we think that this version of the Latin compositions of Milton may be termed successful. It is evidently the production of a good scholar; and of one who, if he often fails in poetical expression, rarely betrays the same deficiency in feeling.

The *concetti* of the Italian sonnets are sufficiently preserved by the translator: but we pass on to his own Latin poems. In the '*Montes Glaciales*,' we cannot observe much classical spirit. The author seems to write without a model; and indeed without even a general reference to any established guide. His hexameters are neither Lucretian nor Virgilian; nor do they bear any similarity to Juvenal or to Horace. We cannot attribute much exactness of scholarship to compositions in which the words '*æva*' and '*pelagum*' are suffered to occur, and the licentious use of short vowels before *st* offends us several times in a very few verses. In the translations from Vincent Bourne, which are for the most part very well executed, it should have been observed that Bourne's own poem of " The Thracian" is only an amplification from the Greek Anthology. Cowper's versions from the Anthology are very close: but few of them, we think, are extremely fortunate. That of the celebrated little poem on *Health* is in our judgment singularly the reverse. The few fables translated from Gay, which conclude the volume, do not tend to increase our opinion of the *elegance* of Cowper's classical knowlege. That it was considerable, we have no doubt, but far from highly polished. " The Hare and many Friends" is but a careless, or, at all events, an imperfect version. The subjoined couplet abounds in faults:

> ' *Vix* ibi stratus, *equi sonitum pedis audi, et oh spe*
> *Quam lætâ adventu* cor *agitatur equi.*'

The inaccuracy and the inelegance of the first line are followed by a decided false quantity in the second; for that the line of Ovid in which *cor* was printed as a long syllable should be differently read, or defended by a hiatus which cannot be pleaded in the present case, no scholar will deny.

> '*Belle miselle lepuscule, equus respondet,*' &c.

is a style of which we cannot approve. Here, however, different opinions may subsist: but the same want of a model, which we remarked in the '*Montes Glaciales,*' is apparent in these translations, and equally influential on their character. *Discedŏ*, and *susceperŏ*, and *errŏ* (*erronis*), are as barbarous in our opinion as

> '*Prætereà tollens* quem illi aversantur'

is aukward and inadmissible. To remark on the constant violation of the rules of final quantity would be superfluous. The author seems to entertain no principle of observing them; and the few Latin lines here published betray more instances of this nature than all the authentic copies of the purer Latin poets put together.

We shall now take our leave of this volume; for which, notwithstanding all that we have said of it, we offer our thanks to the editor, in common with a large part of the readers and purchasers of poetry in this country. Few even of those who possess Mr. Hayley's Life of Cowper, or the separate publication of his Translations from Milton, &c. will hesitate to become proprietors of this convenient addition to the former volumes of Cowper's Poems. It makes up the set very neatly, and contains *all* that we shall probably ever have of novelty from the same posthumous papers, however little it may be. We cannot, moreover, dismiss the collection, and the labours of the editor, without bearing our testimony (be our difference from him, on speculative points, ever so important,) to the modest and unassuming manner in which he has mentioned his own attentions to his afflicted relative, persevering, affectionate, and praiseworthy as they evidently were. Indeed, excepting that relation's own kindheartedness to his infirm friend and companion Mrs. Unwin, we scarcely know an instance of more patient and tender ministration to the wants and wishes of the unhappy. It would give us real pain unnecessarily to disturb a person capable of such benevolent and disinterested conduct: but, from whatever cause it has arisen, (and we are willing to suppose the best possible,) the preface in question seemed absolutely to demand not only our extended *notice* as a new work on an important subject, but our strict *examination* as a work liable to strong objections.

Art. IX. *Tracts, Historical and Statistical, on India;* with Journals of several Tours through various Parts of the Peninsula: also an Account of Sumatra, in a Series of Letters. By Benjamin Heyne, M.D. F.L.S. Member of the Asiatic Society of Calcutta, and the learned Societies of Bombay, Berlin, &c. and Surgeon and Naturalist on the Establishment of Fort St. George. Illustrated by Maps and other Plates. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Baldwin.

These tracts have not merely an historical and statistical but a literary and scientific value. They include journals of several tours through parts of the peninsula hitherto imperfectly explored; and they communicate both the observations of inspection and the collections of research. For amusement, the lounging reader may perhaps prefer the pages of Mrs. Graham (see Rev. Vol. lxxvii. p. 258.): but for new instruction the man of science will prefer the disquisitions of Dr. Heyne.

In the first tract, the author gives a statistical account of the Carnatic, and treats in order of its soil, water, agriculture, weather, climate, roads, and remarkable places. The mineralogical or geological particulars of the structure of the mountains, and of the nature of the arable land, constitute the most peculiar information in this chapter. The agriculture is botanically described; and the treatise on the weather compiles a vast mass of singular Hindoo doctrines on that ill-understood science, of which a short specimen may excite the attention of our meteorologists:

> ' In the Megha Sandusha Grandum, it is said of thunder—When the smoke, lightning, water, and wind combine together, and rise towards the regions in which the probhunda wind reigns, a friction is produced between these substances, which occasions the discharge of bolts with the accompanying thunder.
>
> ' According to the Chumpoo Ramayana, the following predictions may be formed from the colour of the lightning. If the lightning be of an impure green colour, it precedes strong wind; if red, the weather will be afterwards hot; if yellow, strong thunder and rain will follow; and if white, or black, it presages a season without rain, and consequently dearth.
>
> ' The first of the works from which these quotations are taken, treats of nothing but clouds; the second is one of the many Ramayana, or Epic Poems, celebrating the feats of Rama.'

Statistical fragments on the Mysore compose the second tract. The state of the thermometer and of the barometer is recorded; and the prevailing winds, the periodical rains, and other atmospheric phænomena, such as fogs, dews, hail, and thunder, are described with complacency of detail. The author next treats of earthquakes, of the general appearance of the land, of its rivers, tanks, and canals, and of its mountains and minerals. That this last subject is well discussed, a short specimen may prove:

> ' Having given an idea of the various mountains which occur in this part of India, I shall now attempt to describe the different minerals which I met with while traversing it in all directions.
>
> ' The great rock, which in fact constitutes the basis of the whole country is a kind of sienite, composed for the most part of four different ingredients; namely, quartz, felspar, hornblende, and mica. The quartz has usually a dull greyish white colour; and veins of it, from four to ten inches thick, often traverse the rock in different directions. The felspar varies in colour, from a silver white to a deep brick red, and is the most copious constituent of the rock. The hornblende is black, very abundant, and very much given to decomposition. The mica is easily distinguished from the hornblende, even when the stone is nearly in a state of disintegration: the hornblende, in that state, has assumed a brown ochre colour, and has lost all lustre and cohesion; while the mica retains both its colour, lustre, and cohesion to the last, and becomes only more apparent by the progress of disintegration. This is particularly exemplified in the Mysore country, where the waving high ground consists of sienite decomposed into pipe-clay, intermixed with micaceous shining particles, and grains of quartz.
>
> ' The inland range of the Ghauts is composed of sienite, as well as the eastern Ghauts, with this difference, that the felspar is of a beautiful brick red colour, and the predominating ingredient. Mica also abounds in some of the hills. I have seen specimens of mica slate, from mountains situated on the west side of Bengalore; but have never seen any such rock in the eastern range.
>
> ' The kind of rock just described, which is a very handsome stone, continues to Nidgcul; but, in the range that crosses the country, of which Nundydroog is the principal hill, it becomes intermediate between the sienite of the eastern and inland ranges. The felspar is more red, and the mica more conspicuous than in the eastern Ghauts; but not so beautiful as at Siwagunga and Sewendroog.
>
> ' The ranges of hills to which Chittledroog belongs are exactly of the same composition. In some places the felspar is of a fine red, in others of a silvery white colour.
>
> ' When this rock begins to decompose, it assumes a slaty form, the layers of which are pretty thick; but as the disintegration advances, it scales off in thin laminæ, which are very brittle; and in them the mica is more apparent than in the fresh rock.
>
> ' This rock is every where given to decomposition, probably on account of the great proportion of iron which it contains; and this decomposition is much farther advanced in the lower than in the higher parts of the mountains. On the summits of the hills the soundest stones are always found, because every thing that has been loosened by decomposition is washed down by the monsoon

rains. In the lowest part of the country, usually at some depth below the surface, the same sienitic rock occurs, almost always decomposed, and without cohesion or colour. The felspar is commonly converted into pipe-clay; the hornblende is either entirely gone or changed into ochre; the mica still brilliant, and the quartz entire.'

To this topic succeeds the analytical enumeration of twenty-three other primary mineral substances, which the author observed on the spot, and many of which he there subjected to chemical processes. The geologist will do well to seek in the book itself for the many important and new facts which it every where presents.

The productions of the country, and the various quadrupeds, birds, reptiles, and insects, are enumerated, described, and classed; as are also the human inhabitants. The prices of provisions,—the difference between the produce and the expense of cultivation,—the share allowed to the farmer and his instruments of tillage,—the coins, weights, and measures,—the general commerce of the country,—and its languages,—next attract appropriate remark. Its learning is thus characterized:

' I have found but few learned men among the Hindoos in the Mysore, as during the reign of Hyder and Tippoo the sciences were by no means encouraged: medicine, or rather quackery, alone was rewarded by Moormen; hence pretenders to this science, makers of nostrums and provocatives, and sorcerers, are to be found in abundance wherever the Mahometan religion is established.

' All books of science are written either in Sanscrit, in the Dewanagar character, or in Telinga, in the southern, and Mahratta, in the northern provinces; the few Canary works are only translations: as for example, the Raymayana and Bhagavat; and indeed these scarcely deserve the name of translations, as in them the conjunctions only are Canary, and the rest Sanscrit. The songs used by the dancing women are almost all Telinga; the songs of the common people are in that language even in those parts of the country where it is not understood. They have likewise considerable collections of Moorish and Persian songs.

' Their dramas are mere travesties of the national epic works, as of the Ramayana and Bhagavat: the prompter, as he might be called, recites the most remarkable passages before every scene, in Sanscrit verse, understood very often by nobody present, not even by himself. It is then acted and spoken over again in the vulgar tongue, and much wit and satire are frequently displayed by the actors: no class of people, not even the ministers of state (Dewans) or Bramins, are spared; the former are represented as avaricious, selfish, intriguing; and the latter as hypocritical, dishonest, supercilious, arrogant, dastardly rogues.

'In the northern Circars I have seen women of the dancing cast introduced as actresses; but in the Mysore they always employ Bramin boys to act the female parts, and some of them perform the characters with so much skill, that we almost forget they are not women.

'A merry Andrew, or buffoon, is a person never to be dispensed with.

'Comedies of this kind last for seven or eight nights, beginning at seven in the evening and continuing till day-light.

'What learning exists is entirely confined to the Bramins; the lower classes are satisfied if they understand common arithmetic, reading, and writing, and few of the cultivators of land possess even this degree of knowledge.'

The rest of the chapter is occupied with an account of the pigments, dyes, and tanning processes in use among the natives: from which details, European artists may derive valuable practical hints.

A third tract gives a minute report of the diamond-mines in India; and coloured plates representing the raw diamond are annexed. The external crust resembles amber; and the diamonds occur, like pig-nuts and truffles, in a bed of mould.

The fourth tract supplies a detailed and curious account of the copper-mines in the Callastry district, and elsewhere.

Of the fifth tract, the subject is such as will cause it to be read with very general interest and sympathy in Great Britain; it agitates the important question of sending missionaries into Hindostan, to propagate the Christian religion. Dr. Heyne, whose local knowlege and philosophic freedom from prejudice deserve great deference, decides for encouraging the propagation of Christianity in the East by every mode that is compatible with an equitable toleration of the distinct sects, and with the respect due to the prescriptive rights of a long established religion. He inveighs against the prevalent immorality, originating in the traditional notions and rites of the Hindoos; and he thinks that a change even to negative religion would have some advantages over their pernicious superstition. Some of their vices, however, such as the mendacity so common among them, rather originate in political servitude than in doctrinal error.

Chapter vi. is occupied entirely with translations from Hindoo books. First of the *Kalpastanum*, which consists of a pharmacopœia, and of a connected theory of diseases; the two forming together the Hindoo art of medicine. Both these works are very curious, as they tend to make known *several new* remedies hitherto foreign in European practice; *and as they* advance strange and original explanations of symptoms and of diseases, which may offer useful hints both to the theoretical and to the practical physician. However superior we may be to the Hindoos in anatomical and physiological knowlege, certainly many discoveries are yet to be made in the treatment of diseases. Surgery has nearly completed the map of her territories, but medicine has still an extensive *terra incognita* to explore. Experience no where watches nature in vain, and her records deserve consultation along the Ganges as well as along the Thames. — Secondly occurs a free and shortened translation of the *Chetri-ganitam*, a book on land-surveying. To the historiographer of mathematical science, if not to the teacher of geometry, this tract may supply some convenient notices.

Tract vii. is a treatise on the *terra japonica*, or catechu, which the author conceives to be the best sort of tan for leather that is any where in use; and he thinks that it might be imported from the East at a lower price than oak-bark fetches here. — viii. On sulphur. — ix. On smelting iron: it appears evident that the use of wood in all the processes of melting and hammering iron produces a better metal than the use of coal.

The tenth is a desultory but well-meaning dissertation, which contains many patriotic and philanthropic hints concerning the better government of India. Dr. Heyne is one of those practical politicians who attach more value to the amelioration of internal policy, than to speculative reforms in the structure or theory of administrative bodies: but at the same time he suggests some plausible plans of rewarding the military services of seapoys. He also recommends the planting of trees by the road-side; and the extension of the tank-system, so as to carry irrigation to new and higher levels.

Tracts xi. xii. and xiii. describe the Hindoo method of dying cotton, and of smelting iron. In the last two papers we observe something of repetition. In a description of the Buggleconda hill, which consists of basalt, it is said to have the property of rising out of the ground occasionally, and causing earthquakes: but no lava, or decisive volcanic symptoms, could be perceived.

Chap. xv., which is very amusing, contains the journal of a tour from Bezwadah to Timmericotah. This is almost new country to European footsteps. Dr. H. observes that 'roads, in the European sense of the word, scarcely exist in India, at least in these northern circars. Hence travelling in the wet season is exceedingly troublesome; most of the paths passing through rice-fields, where the palankeen-bearers are up to the middle in water; and at all seasons of the year when we pass through jungles, we must take care not to lose an eye by the branches of thorny bushes which meet each other in the middle of the path, and soon rasp a palankeen to pieces.' The natives of those circars, in which jonnalu is the principal food, are described as of a larger size, and of stouter healthier constitution, than those of districts in which rice is the principal food. It was necessary to travel preceded by a tomtom, or drum, to frighten away the tigers: of which animal the author saw at Timmericotah a skin that measured fourteen feet in length. The cataract of Yedlapada is described; and hints are suggested for rendering it subservient to purposes of more copious and extensive irrigation. Great good sense is displayed in this scorn of the picturesque, which sees in a cataract only a power that could move an overshot wheel.

The sixteenth tract, or chapter, is important to the medical and chemical world. It treats of the milk of plants, especially of that which proceeds from the *jatropha cureas*, and which immediately renders silver brittle, so that it may be rubbed between the fingers into a greenish powder.

A tour from Samulcotah to Hydrabad, which was performed in 1798, is narrated in chap. xvii. A judicious spirit pervades the whole detail, and attaches useful observations to every little occurrence. The route is not splendid in monuments of architectural magnificence, but is rendered tributary to natural history and to political instruction. Of Hydrabad, it may be worth while to transcribe the sketch:

> ‘ Hydrabad, the capital of the Dekan, is a very large and populous place, bounded on the north side by the Musy, a small river, but rapid during the monsoon, when it is not fordable. There is a large arched bridge over it leading to the northern gate, entirely built of sienite. It is broad enough for two carriages to pass each other, and is on the whole as good a building as I should have expected to see at Hydrabad. The town is surrounded by a low wall said to be nearly square. The ground on which this city is built is uneven. Captain Kirkpatrick was so kind as to give me two of his hircarras, who cleared the way before me, and procured me immediate admittance, which without them I could not have obtained.
>
> ‘ I do not know from what motive; but no European is allowed to enter this city, not even an officer of the Company's detachment. Some years ago, I am informed, they were perfectly at liberty to go to any part of it. In order to see every thing as well as possible I traversed the streets on horseback. They are in general narrow, badly paved, and far from straight. The houses are mostly built of wood, few with upstair rooms, and on the whole they have a very wretched appearance. The back houses, wherever I could get a glimpse of them, seemed to be much better and more spacious. But no man, and least of all a European, can get admittance to them: nobody indeed but the master of the house and his eunuchs. They

even distrust their sons, who after they have attained a certain age are not allowed to enter the Zemana. Few women are seen in the streets; but they are crowded constantly with men and horses. The small number of females to be seen are either old Moorish hags, or Telinganas, and not the prettiest of them. In one part of the town dancing girls are to be seen in great numbers.

'I saw several great Amirs pass in state. They have always according to their rank a number of horsemen before them: their palankeens are very short, and they sit upright in them. Few but themselves are allowed to enter the gates in such a conveyance: this being a privilege that must be granted by the Nizam or his Prime Minister. The Amirs living at the capital are in fact nothing more than state prisoners; none being allowed to go out of the town without particular leave of the Nizam: much less are they allowed to repair to the provinces confided to their care.

'As eastern pomp requires a great number of attendants, and large sums to support them, it is easy to see why the capital is so very populous. It makes on the whole an appearance that may be called splendid in comparison with the other native towns on the coast. I believe we may even call it opulent; for all the money collected in the provinces is spent here; and merchants, though sometimes plundered, soon recover again, on account of the extravagance of the rich and the quick circulation of money. It is one of the maxims of a Moorman never to keep money. They care not for to-morrow: they spend their money among women and merchants as fast as they can squeeze it out of the poor cultivators, or out of the merchants themselves. I did not think much of the bazars that I visited. The china shops here contain a very miserable collection of things, and those of other merchants are not much better. The only place where any thing can be got is the Beghum bazar.

'The buildings best worth seeing at Hydrabad are the large mosque and the palace. The former is a grand building, the two domes of which are astonishingly high, engage the attention of the traveller at a great distance, and betray the residence of a mighty and wealthy Prince. The street, before you approach this grand building, is by no means qualified to prepare one for the sight of such an edifice. It leads to a gate where I was obliged to dismount and take off my boots. From this I ascended a flight of steps, and found myself all at once on the esplanade before the Mecca Masjīd. If I am not mistaken, it has acquired its name from being built on the same plan as the great mosque at Mecca.

'Having no firman I was not allowed to go into the mosque, and am therefore unable to give a description of a place that is so worthy of it. From without I saw that the whole consisted of a number of beautiful and regular porticoes round a spacious centre, where, before a burning taper, I saw the Mahomedan doctors upon their carpets. The pillars were amazingly lofty, and if I am not mistaken composed each of one solid piece of granite, the surface of which was beautifully polished.

'Opposite the entrance is a tank or reservoir of water for ablutions. It is a square place with steps descending to the water, which did not appear to me very clean. I even saw some fellows washing their dirty clothes in it.

'I observed also here a number of beggars in rags, who made a most disagreeable noise. I do not mean fakīrs, but the same as are met in numbers in all the streets of Hydrabad, who are even impudent enough to seize the bridle of a horse, and not allow the rider to proceed a step until he has satisfied them.

'On the same side of the mosque, near the reservoir, is the place where the mother of the present Nizam is buried. It is a small mausoleum erected of coarse marble, very artificially cut, which is said to have cost a great deal of money. It is always covered with flowers, of which the Moormen are exceedingly fond.

'The Nizam goes to the mosque only once a year on a certain day, though his mahal or palace is quite close to it. I had no opportunity of seeing the palace, for which I am the more concerned as it is said to be one of the few places worth seeing at Hydrabad. It is astonishingly large, being, if we include the Zemana, several miles in circumference. The Zemana, I am told from the best authority, is watched by a guard of women, probably because women are much stricter than eunuchs in watching over the chastity of their own sex. More than 600 beauties are shut up within the walls of the Haram, for the use of an old emaciated cripple. Among them are said to be many Circassians and Georgians, and some Italians.

'The beghum, or wife of the Nizam, is said to be of the Vysea cast. He saw her by chance in his younger days when passing through a village, and took her away from her house. Her province now is to watch over the rest of his women, to choose and appoint them regularly, and as report says, to prepare his curries, which she sends him daily sealed up under a strong guard. Whether it be true that a certain quantity of pulverized gold is mixed with them I had no means of determining; but as all Indians have a very high idea of the strengthening power of this metal, the assertion does not seem to me very improbable.

'The beghum bazar is a kind of suburbs inhabited chiefly by Hindoo merchants of the Mahratta nation. It is situated on the northern banks of the Musy, so that you pass through it when you go from the residency to the town. It is so called because the duties levied on all sorts of merchandize in this bazar belong exclusively to the Beghum or Queen. The streets are very narrow, and the houses mean. I went only to the shops of the druggists, who have as great a variety of things as many in Europe.'

The circars on the coast of Orissa are described in the eighteenth chapter, to which a special geological map is attached.

A second visit to Hydrabad, which was undertaken in 1809, occupies chapter xix. The intervening change is thus briefly related:

'We passed through the suburbs, and, what astonished me, *without* being once abused by a pious Mussulman. What a difference from the treatment which I saw and experienced ten years previous! At that time it was with the utmost difficulty that I could get admission into the city, and, when unprotected, I seldom passed a Moorman without receiving an opprobrious appellation: now the gates were wide open, English sepoys were seen parading every where in the streets, and many a Moorman as he passed would salute us with a salam.'

We have an account in the twentieth chapter of an expedition from Jalna to Seronge; in the twenty-first, remarks on Mahavellyporam; and, in the twenty-second, the journal of a tour from Bengalore to Trichinopoly. A fact exceedingly important to missionaries occurs in this tract:

'In this part of the country the Christian religion has made some progress, particularly about Tanjore, where the late Rev. Mr. Swartz, and other Divines of the Mission of the Established Church of England, have in former times spared no exertions which zeal could prompt and prudence devise, and where at present their successors the Rev. Messrs. Pole and Kohloff do not labour in vain. Want of assistants and fellow-labourers confines their attention now chiefly to the flocks which have been collected, and to the schools to which all classes of natives have admittance. The Christians of this mission are not deprived of their cast: they on the contrary sometimes marry from among those Gentiles who yet profess the religion of their fathers, and who on this occurrence adopt that of Christ with the perfect consent of their relatives. I am myself witness of a connivance of the kind that happened about twenty years ago at Tranquebar, where a Christian of this mission, Gniāna Pragāsam, the interpreter of the Danish Government, a man of a respectable cast, married the daughter of a Hindoo at Madras, who with his family came and lived with the new couple for some time, and remained bigotted idolaters. I have since understood that marriages of this kind are by no means uncommon.

'Much has been said of the *rice* Christians, as those were called who received a small allowance of food when they were instructed in the tenets of the Christian religion during a famine, some of whom recanted or returned to their families and their gods after it was over. In my opinion, this is proof positive that the adoption of the Christian religion in itself is not followed by the privation of their cast or their situation in political society; it shows, on the contrary, the laxness of Hindooism, which re-admits apostates either quite unnoticed or after a trifling penance. Loss of cast incurred by some crimes is on the contrary irrecoverable.'

The glass-works at Matod are described in the twenty-third chapter; and the steel-works of Mysore in the twenty-fourth and last.

An Appendix contains Letters on Sumatra, which are nine in number; and some tables of the thermometer and barometer, as observed in different parts of Hindostan.

This handsome work is illustrated by maps, by coloured plates, and by various views of the objects described. If it is more replete with instruction than with amusement, consults more the useful than the agreeable, and aspires to be serviceable rather than to supply entertainment, we hope that these considerations will operate as additional motives with purchasers to patronize so meritorious an effort. The portions of the volume were composed progressively at distant times and places; and they are not arranged in strict chronological order, nor grouped according to their contents: so that a something of wholeness and connection seems wanting. All its parts, however, display a completeness of information, and a soundness of judgment, which place the author high among the writers of travels. Still, we think that the old method, of putting down observations when and where they occur, is more conducive to a lively interest, than this subsequent classification and condensation of them into distinct dissertations. We have here a box of pearls, but the string seems wanting which should give them cohesion, and unite them in one conspicuous ornament. The traveller should not lose that character in the duties of the geographer, and commix the notices of others with his own: his local details delight as steps of a progress in which the reader is become interested for its own sake: but, as parts of a statistical survey, they are often insufficiently important.

We hope that the great merit of this publication will secure to the author some specific patronage from the India Company; and be the means of enabling him to prosecute yet farther those scientific researches, to the love of which he has sacrificed so much leisure, so much cost, so much ease, and some tempting opportunities of advancement.

The curious rough diamond, of which a finely coloured plate faces p. 103., now adorns the collection of Indian minerals in the possession of the Countess of Powis.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MARCH, 1816.

POETRY.

Art. 10. *The Mégha Dúta;* or Cloud Messenger; a Poem in the Sanscrit Language: By Cálidása. Translated into English Verse, with Notes and Illustrations: By Horace Hayman Wilson, Assistant-Surgeon in the Service of the Honourable East-India Company; and Secretary to the Asiatic Society. Published under the Sanction of the College of Fort William. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Black, Parry, and Co.

The formidable list of recommendations in this title-page was not wanting to establish Mr. Wilson in our good opinion, as a man of curious research and scholarship. We think, also, that his poem is as creditable to his command of English versification, as we have no doubt the fidelity of his translation is to his knowlege of the Sanscrit. Still, with all these qualifications, we cannot think that he has been able to present his readers with an interesting poem from the original of Calidasa. In that original, we conceive the fault to lie; and we acknowlege that we have not been able yet to correct our opinion, that of all quarters of the habitable globe whence the curiosity of modern scholars has enriched European literature, Hindostan, in matters of taste and polite learning, has contributed the smallest portion. There is something, in our judgment, so cumbrous in this Eastern Mythology, that its very *Clouds* are heavy; and whether we turn to the shorter or the longer specimens of Indian poetic lore, with which we have been hitherto acquainted, we cannot but think that the *Curse of Kehama* pervades them all; and that they are either so intricate as to be confused, or so aukwardly fanciful as to be ridiculous. The notes to the present poem are full of necessary information: but a glossary is wanted in almost every page of the text. — We take a specimen from the description of the yascha's wife. The yascha is a demigod, banished for twelve months from Alaca, the city of the Yaschas; and he sends the contents of this poem by a Cloud to his home and his wife. The passage which we have selected is unusually free from Orientalisms:

'Soothed by expected bliss should gentle sleep
O'er her soft limbs and frame exhausted creep,
Delay thy tidings, and suspend thy flight,
And watch in silent patience through the night;
Withhold thy thunders, lest the awful sound
Her slumber banish, and her dreams confound,
Where her fond arms like winding shrubs she flings
Around my neck, and to my bosom clings.

'Behold her rising with the early morn,
Fair as the flower that opening buds adorn;
And strive to animate her drooping mind
With cooling rain-drops and refreshing wind:
Restrain thy lightnings, as her timid gaze
Shrinks from the bright intolerable blaze;
And murmuring softly, gentle sounds prepare,
With words like these to raise her from despair.

'"Oh wife adored! whose lord still lives for thee,
Behold his friend and messenger in me;
Who now approach thy beauteous presence fraught
With many a tender and consoling thought;
Such tasks are mine: where absent lovers stray,
I speed the wanderer lightly on his way;
And with my thunders teach his lagging mind,
New hopes the braid of absence to unbind."'

Besides the oriental knowlege in the notes, Mr. W. affords much proof of classical and general reading; and the preface contains a slight sketch of Hindu Poetry, which may be useful to the aspirant in this branch of learning.

A curious mistake occurs in p. 158. in speaking of the *swallow* for the *sparrow* of Lesbia.

Art. 11. *The Cadet;* a Poem, in Six Parts: containing Remarks on British India. To which is added, Egbert and Amelia; in Four Parts: with other Poems. By a late Resident in the East. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Jennings.

We are absolutely unable on any rational principle to account for the unmixed mass of nonsense which is perpetually issuing from the press. In these cases, we are naturally disposed to be as briefly judicial as we can: but something *must* be said to check (if it *can* be checked) the inundation of crude absurdity, which is enough to continue the first and accelerate the second childhood of half our population.

> "We wage no war with Bedlam or the Mint."

True: but with the eternally obtrusive productions of the "Limbo of Vanity," which come whirling across our atmosphere from every point of the compass, and really threaten to obscure our better sight, we are bound by every tie of duty and discretion to keep up an active warfare. Buffetted about they must be with the "*mystica vannus*" of criticism in every direction; since, if they were suffered to unite, and to come down on us in collective density and dullness, we—could not answer for the consequences.

We are far from being disposed, however, to view the juvenile effusions of the present author with the severity which many other ephemerals demand. There is much good feeling about him; and we have little doubt that, if he had lived longer before the publication of these volumes, he would have sent them into the world under different auspices. Having said thus much of the author of 'The Cadet,' we must beg leave to proceed in a different tone to his composition. He tells us, in his preface, that his poem was written at sea: but he does not add (though no doubt this must have been the case) that the *qualms* incident to a person 'unaccustomed to the sea' must have operated on his imagination, and have made his verses *velut ægri somnia*, like the dreams of a *sea-sick person*. What other hypothesis can account for such enormities as the following?

> 'Oh, ill-starr'd Rational! for whom my song
> Its humbly pensive strain would still prolong,
> When thou'rt releas'd from fell Confinement's thrall,
> Does joy go forth and welcome Freedom's call?
> No! the foul macula of dark Disgrace
> Throb at thy heart and mantle in thy face!
> Tho' Innocence may some kind solace bring,
> Still will Contempt put forth its active sting;
> And mocking jibes jar hateful on thine ear,
> Arouse disgust, and wring the bitter tear;

Soon shall Despair thy vital functions freeze,
And Sorrow's cup be swallow'd to the lees.'

Or, if this be not sufficient to raise the wonder of our contemporaries,

" So frighted as they are and wan"—*with verse*,

we think that the following must make the boarding-schools themselves, all round the metropolis, exclaim, " Hold! hold! enough!"

' The polish'd vessel, from translucent spring,
Charg'd with the clear unmingled element,
Is grateful to the taste as to the eye;
But should by chance a deleterious drop
Taint the pure water in the vase contain'd,
Its still diaph'nous beauty perishes;
And that which late the sight fix'd welcome on,
Now grown corrupt, no longer gratifies.
So lorn Amelia; late so passing bright
That angels would have scarce contemn'd her love;
Her charms, now sullied by the taint of sin,
Gave joy no longer,—blister'd by the tear
Of fell Remorse, corroding self-reproach.'

These two quaker-coloured duodecimos, with pink backs, cost fourteen shillings in boards!!!

"*Pœnitet. Pudet. Piget.*"

Art. 12. *Opoleyta;* or a Tale of Ind. A Poem in four Cantos. By Bertie Ambrosse. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

Numerous strange liberties are taken with the English language in this volume; and so much of the Hindu is engrafted on it, that the comparatively scanty information in the notes will not enlighten the reader sufficiently to enable him to relish the recondite beauties of the text. We cannot pursue the story through its closely printed pages; but we shall extract a passage in which Mr. Bertie Ambrosse may make his own appeal to our readers. It is a general description of Hindostan, a country to which Mr. B. A. seems particularly attached; and the British inhabitant of which region he is anxious to vindicate, (the gentlemen from a charge of joviality, and the ladies from one of levity,) against some person whom he does not name, but who is designated in rather severe terms of reprehension. We hope that it is not the author of " The Cadet;" who makes some remarks on British India, which we omitted to notice in our examination of his little volumes: (see the preceding article:) but we remember that he mentions some of the society in question in no very complimentary manner.

' Heavens! on this joyous champain's flowery sward
They wend, indifferent to fate's award;
Where nought but loveliness the eye may scan,
And all is peaceful but the soul of man.
Here nature in exuberance supplies
All earthly charms beneath unclouded skies

Spontaneous flowers breathe sweetness as they throw
Their gorgeous tints o'er dimpling lymphs below;
Wild roses blossom in impervious shade,
And jasmines cast their perfume through the glade:
Soft are the lays from all the woodland rung,
With gold and ruddy bloom enclustering hung:
Here high embowering canes their glistening length
Shoot though the fig-tree's ever-spreading strength;
The broad-leafed plaintain flaps o'er fountain springs,
And the cool breeze delicious fragrance flings;
Still wafting on its wings of florid wealth,
The joyous airs of Paradise and health;
The golden orange tints each fairy grove,
And weaves its canopy for boundless love:
Yea, all appliances are here combined
To bless this land, the loveliest of mankind.
Oh! to return to these delightful scenes,
What bliss, what ecstacy my bosom weens!
For oft in these, reluming memory's eye
Would raise the home, the days of infancy;
And social revellers enjoy that dream
When friendship pledged, and England was the theme.
Yea, this the land where high-toned virtues pay
Atonement due for frail humanity;
Where nature shews, in unrestricted reign,
Here giant-mountain, and wide-cultured plain;
Here hearts dilate, frenetic at offence,
Yet swell and sigh with ever kinder sense;
Wild souls! of fierce extreme, deceit above,
In hatred ruthless, infinite in love.
Here frowning rocks impend o'er rushing floods,
Crowned with the majesty of ancient woods,
Whence thundering torrents sweep the blear ravine,
And waste their waves where man hath never been.'

In this extract, '*dimpling lymphs*,' '*my bosom weens*,' '*pay*' as a rhyme to '*humanity*,' and some other phrases, must be excepted from that moderate degree of praise which we are disposed to bestow on the rest. — We have no room for farther notice of the faults to which we have generally alluded above: but we must remark that a passage occurs at page 127. in the notes, which ought not to have been re-published. If Mr. Gibbon chose to be facetious on such subjects, he made a bad choice; and we cannot suffer any similar liberties to pass uncensured in an inferior writer.

NOVELS.

Art. 13. *Zeluca*; or, Educated and Uneducated Women. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1815.

In this female prototype of Dr. Moore's celebrated Zeluco, the evils of ungoverned passion and inordinate vanity are forcibly drawn; the story has an appearance of reality and nature; and the judicious reflections, which are occasionally introduced, shew that it is the production of an observant and sensible mind. We do not, however, approve the consolation which Marianne administers to Zeluca on her death-bed, by directing her to expect the forgiveness of her crime, merely on account of 'its minutest palliation.'—We must also observe that the private discourse of young ladies, in a ball-room, is here made too coarse to be credible; and the book is so carelessly printed, that errors in grammar and orthography occur in almost every page.

Art. 14. *Display.* A Tale, by Jane Taylor, one of the Authors of "Original Poems for Infant Minds," "Hymns for Infant Minds," &c. 12mo. pp. 214. 6s. Boards. Taylor and Hessey. 1815.

We have been rather undecided whether we should notice this pleasing little book under the class of *Novels* or under that which is headed *Religious.* In the one case, we should have praised it as replete with wholesome advice, and the most rational inducements to piety; in the other, it wins our approbation by the simplicity and interest of the tale, the truth with which the characters are drawn, the natural liveliness of its scenes, and the excellence of its moral. The worldly reader will be forced to acknowlege the verisimilitude of many of the feelings exhibited in Elizabeth, the heroine, the cure of whose propensity to *display* is the subject of the Tale; and older readers must feel a paternal love for Emily, who forms the contrast to her friend's character.

We cannot, however, refrain from objecting to Miss Taylor's anathema against dancing. In our younger days, we have tripped many a measure, without a feeling which we could as Christians disapprove; and we wonder at the introduction of such a prohibition into this book, which is remarkable for the general cheerfulness of its morality.

The advertisements attached to this volume induce us to suppose that its author is the daughter of Mrs. Taylor of Ongar, of whose compositions we have spoken with respect in former Numbers. (See also Art. 25. in this sheet.)

EDUCATION.

Art. 15. *Grammaire Française,* &c.; *i.e.* A French Grammar, by Mlle. J. M. Chatelain, Member of the Royal Academy of Writing, &c. at Paris. 8vo. 7s. 6d. sewed. Printed by Schulze and Dean. 1815.

The chief objection against this grammar is that it is written entirely in French, while it is professedly intended to teach the rudiments of the French language to such as are totally unacquainted with it. Those persons, however, who can surmount this inconvenience, will be assisted in understanding the different tenses of French verbs by the writer's ingenious method of prefixing to each tense an adverb of time, or a short appropriate phrase.

Art. 16. *Always Happy!!!* or Anecdotes of Felix and his Sister Serena: a Tale written for her Children, by a Mother. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Half-bound. Harris. 1815.

Our young friends will read here of a juvenile *Serena*, whose history and example we may recommend as being both pleasing and instructive.

Art. 17. *Right and Wrong:* exhibited in the History of Rosa and Agnes. Written for her Children, by a Mother. Author of "Always Happy," &c. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Half-bound. Harris.

The contrast between two children of different dispositions is here happily imagined, and the whole story is moral and pleasing: but some verbal inaccuracies are observable, such as, page 101., 'How many greater performances are *began* and completed,' &c.

Art. 18. *Utility*, or Sketches of Domestic Education. By the Author of "Simple Pleasures," &c. 12mo. pp. 186. Darton and Co. 1815.

Few books for children are superior to the present little volume, which contains much real information, with attractive philosophical experiments and botanical investigations. We differ, however, from the fair writer respecting the herb woodroof, which she affirms to be 'devoid of fragrance in a fresh state;' whereas we have collected it near Bath, and found it odoriferous when fresh-gathered.

Art. 19. *The Conversations of Emily*, abridged from the French. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Half-bound. Darton and Co. 1815.

Some passages in this translation are rather too much in the French taste to meet the approbation of English mothers: as when the little Emily is allowed to talk too frequently of her dress and personal appearance, and her *governess* is made to endure the treatment and perform the offices of a nursery-maid. The French idiom is also occasionally perceptible, as in page 60. 'You need not *make complaint*;' and page 218., 'You are out of danger, and begin to recover your own countenance.' In page 236. the phrase, 'she wishes *you and I* to go' is ungrammatical. The speeches of Emily, however, are often *naïve* and lively; and her mother's observations are sage, like those of most mammas in such little books.

Art. 20. *Domestic Pleasures*, or the Happy Fire-side. Illustrated by interesting Conversations. By F. B. Vaux. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Darton and Co. 1816.

The fair author of this volume has provided instructive amusement for many juvenile fire-side parties, and to all such we recommend her work; in which perhaps the only fault is, that a sensible father and mother are represented as bestowing too much unqualified praise on their offspring. For instance, Mr. Bernard assures little Louisa that she narrates 'admirably;' and Mrs. Bernard tells her children that 'she is delighted to witness their benevolent dispositions,' merely on their making a hasty proposal to work for the poor.

MINERALOGY.

Art. 21. *An Attempt to establish a pure Scientific System of Mineralogy*, by the Application of the Electro-chemical Theory and the Chemical Proportions; by J. Jacob Berzelius, M.D. F.R.S. Professor of Chemistry at Stockholm. Translated from the Swedish Original by John Black. Crown 8vo. pp. 138. 6s. Boards. Baldwin.

As the most ingenious schemes of mineralogical arrangement, which have been hitherto devised, labour under much obscurity and defect, any new method that may be proposed by a gentleman of professional eminence is at least intitled to a patient hearing.—Professor Berzelius having transmitted a copy of the present essay to his friend, Dr. Thomson, the latter prevailed with the translator to put it into an English dress, with the single stipulation that the Doctor should compare the MS. with the original, and ascertain the fidelity of the version. The essay itself, though not formally divided, may be regarded as consisting of two parts; namely, first, a statement of the principles of the theory; and, secondly, an analytical and technical exhibition of mineral substances, deduced from the practical application of the principles.

Viewing Mineralogy as merely a branch of chemistry, the author conceives its history and fate to be essentially involved in those of its parent-stem. The mode of establishing distinctions by external characters cannot, he maintains, be so successfully applied to minerals as to the organized productions of nature; because in the latter we every where meet with the greatest similarity of combinations, associated with the greatest diversity of forms: whereas, in our contemplation of inanimate nature, we every where perceive the greatest similarity of form under the greatest diversity of combinations. In a system of mineralogy, therefore, constructed on the principles of external characters, the accuracy of science (or, in other words, a knowlege of the nature and constitution of the substances,) is sacrificed to the ease and convenience of collecting them.

Again, the influence of electricity on the theory of chemistry ought equally to extend to that of mineralogy; so that, in every compound fossil, we should be taught to look for one or more electro-positive with one or more electro-negative ingredients.

'The most usual mineral combinations between oxides generally contain three oxides, of which two are bases and one acid, and less frequently two acids and one basis, resembling the two classes of double salts in chemistry. It not unfrequently happens that there are even three or four bases for one acid; but we very seldom indeed find a chemical combination of two bases, each united with its different acid. If from these combinations we suppose a subtraction of the oxygen which they contain, then analogous combinations would take place between the inflammable radicals; and as none of them possesses a very strong affinity for oxygen, (as is the case with iron, lead, silver, antimony, arsenic, sulphur,) it happens pretty often that nature produces such combinations either of inflammable or of oxidated bases.

'If with these theoretical ideas we review the productions of the mineral kingdom, what a light do they at once throw on the compounds consisting of various metals united with sulphur, or of various earths and metallic oxides: order becomes at once visible in this apparent chaos, and mineralogy assumes the character of a science. We immediately discover a numerous class of minerals, the similarity of which to salts has been already pointed out by chemists, though they were unable to make a more extensive application of these resemblances. This class consists of minerals, in which silica occupies the place of an acid, and it contains an endless variety of single, double, triple, and quadruple salts, of different degrees of neutrality, or with excess of acid or base. In the same manner we discover less general classes; thus oxide of titanium, oxide of tantalum, and several metallic oxides not hitherto considered as acids, occasionally act the part of acids; so that the whole of the extensive range of earthy minerals may be classified on the same principles as salts.'

Since chemistry has, moreover, derived much benefit from the doctrine of proportions, it is presumed that mineralogy may receive great improvement from the same source; although the limitation of our faculties, and the inaccuracy of our experiments, may frequently render the results of our analysis really, or apparently, imperfect. Want of care and attention in conducting an analytical process, the presence of extraneous or accidental matters in the specimen subjected to trial, or the deposition of a particle of one compound near to or together with several particles of another compound, may contribute to conceal the existence of chemical proportions in mineral substances. By due attention, however, to these circumstances, the learned Professor supposes that the definite, or, as he terms them, the *quantitative* proportions of the ingredients may be determined and stated in correct formulæ; which he endeavours to illustrate by examples, not only of simple but of double and higher siliciates.

It would greatly extend our report of this little volume to quote the examples, and give an explanatory key to the symbolical language in which they are couched. Suffice it to mention that many varieties of mineral species have undergone the author's scrutiny, and stand arrayed in the order and precise formalities of his chemical nomenclature. The conception and execution of the design are alike highly creditable to his ingenuity, and to his powers of minute and elaborate research. In order to appreciate the full amount of the principles and their practical application, the reader of this concise but masterly exposition would do well to peruse the author's previous communications on *Nomenclature and the Electro-chemical System*, inserted in the *Journal de Physique* for October 1811, and his Essay on *Chemical Volumes*, in the second and third volumes of Dr. Thomson's *Annals of Chemistry*. We doubt not that the acuteness of his ideas, and their now embodied form, will contribute to the adoption of the most rigid and delicate modes of resolving fossil-bodies that chemistry has yet devised: but we cannot venture to predict that they will ever constitute the basis of a popular or very practical system of mineralogy. A few privileged individuals, indeed, furnished with a well-stored laboratory, abundance of leisure, habits of dexterous manipulation, and the patience of a Socrates, may perhaps undertake to investigate and arrange the earths, stones, and metals, which chance or industry may throw in their way, by the rules and processes which are here prescribed: but we have repeatedly remarked that the chemical analysis of the most common stone is an operation, or rather a series of operations, of very considerable nicety; and that, owing to a great variety of circumstances, the results may sometimes prove fallacious, or discordant: so that they cannot very safely be adopted as an universal or stable basis of subordinate arrangement. We admit, at the same time, that, in treating of any mineral species, its chemical constitution and properties, as far as they have been ascertained by cautiously conducted experiments, ought never to be overlooked; because, although in many situations the student may have no means of verifying them within his reach, and of thus recognizing the name and station of the substance which occurs to his observation, the chemical facts respecting it form, nevertheless, an important part of its natural history; and, although they may prove inadequate to the construction of a scientific method, they may often serve to correct the errors of former arrangements, may often convey some essential information concerning the specimen in question, and seem uniformly to confirm the interesting position that, from a very limited number of simple ingredients, nature, by varying the modes of their aggregation, or by some other means unknown to us, deduces a wonderful diversity of aspects, forms, and properties. If the canons and formulæ, therefore, which have been so laboriously instituted by the learned Professor of Stockholm, should fail to obtain general currency in practice, they may yet, in a vast number of instances, be confidently quoted as exhibiting with greater precision than heretofore the chemical composition of the respective members of the mineral kingdom.

The Appendices to this treatise are, 1. *Grounds of the Calculations;* 2. *a Table, shewing the Number of Particles of the Oxygen in the Oxides hitherto known, taking the Radicles as a Particle;* 3. *the Chemical Signs;* 4. *On Oxidum Ferroso-Ferricum;* and 5. *Analysis of Glucina.*

Dr. Thomson thinks that he may answer, with some confidence, for the fidelity of the translation.

POLITICS.

Art. 22. *The Principle of the English Poor-Laws,* illustrated from the Evidence given by Scottish Proprietors (before the Corn-Committee,) on the Connection observed in Scotland between the Price of Grain and the Wages of Labour. By John Weyland, Junior, Esq. F.R.S. &c. 8vo. pp. 78. 3s. 6d. Hatchard. 1815.

Mr. W. is already known to the public as the author of several tracts connected with the state of the poor; viz. A Short Inquiry into the Poor Laws, 1807. (M. R. vol. liii. p. 131.) — Observations on Mr. Whitbread's Poor-Bill. (Ibid.) — A Letter on the Education of the Lower Orders. (M. R. vol. lvi. p. 412.) In commenting on these different tracts, we found much to praise, and not a little to censure. The first and second essays appeared to us rather to contain useful materials than to afford an example of their successful application; while in the last we recognized rather benevolence in the intention than judgment in the plan. On the present occasion, Mr. W. institutes an inquiry into the respective merits of the Scotish and English systems, with regard to the management of the poor; and, as he supports the rarely defended side, he deems it necessary to premise that his arguments are to be considered as intended to defend merely the principles of the English system, without by any means denying the necessity of many modifications and improvements in it. Habits of idleness and beggary are, he says, not the necessary results of the English poor-laws, but of the neglect of moral and religious instruction.

We extract the table of contents, as the best means of giving a view of the plan and object of the pamphlet.

‘ INTRODUCTION.

‘ Sketch of the political Effects of the English Poor Laws.
‘ Nature of the Comparison instituted in the following Treatise.

‘ TREATISE.

‘ Object of the Scottish Evidence.
‘ Comparison of the Policy of the Scottish System, as detailed in the Evidence, with that of the English System, in Years of Plenty, or of average Fertility.
‘ Causes of the great Expenditure, under the Poor-Laws in England.
‘ Comparison of the Policy of the two Systems, in Years of Scarcity.
‘ Comparative Humanity of the two Systems.
‘ Past Effects of the Scottish System, as detailed in the Evidence.
‘ Degree in which the Evidence is conceived *really* to state the general Condition of the Scottish Labourer.
‘ Sketch of the Law and Practice of the Scottish Poor System, as they are supposed really to obtain in Scotland.’

Mr. Weyland exhibits (p. 21. *et seqq.*) the frequent and pernicious fluctuations in the price of labour, which take place under the Scotish system; and he animadverts, in the course of his inquiry, on the evidence given by Lord Lauderdale and other witnesses before the Corn-Committee in the spring of 1814. It is a common notion that Scotland possesses no poor-laws, from the very agreeable circumstance that there are none or hardly any poor-rates: but there are positive statutes, enacting that certain funds, levied in a very easy way, shall be applicable to the relief of the poor. These are derived from collections at the parish-church; from the interest of money or land bequeathed for the use of the poor; and from an eventual assessment, payable half by the landholders and half by the rest of the parish. This assessment, however, is seldom necessary, and is, in any event, of small amount. The Scotish system is therefore merely a protection against infirmity and extreme penury; while the English embraces a wider range, and aims at keeping the price of labour on a footing of equality; remedying to the poor man the pressure of years of dearth, and even supplying a substitute for the increase of wages in time of war, on the calculation that it is better to make up the deficiency in a way avowedly irregular, than to raise wages under all the hazard of bringing them down in peace. Now in Scotland no provision of the kind is made; a course which Mr. W. considers as equally impolitic and unfeeling. He quotes (p. 41.) the evidence of Mr. P. Milne, M.P. a gentleman who is engaged both in manufacturing and agricultural undertakings.

'1. "I have always considered, that when grain and other provisions rose, both manufacturing and agricultural labour *fell.* On the contrary, when provisions and grain fell, manufacturing and agricultural labour rose. The reason is obvious. Supposing there are in any one parish 100 labourers, who are able to do the work of that parish; if provisions rise, those labourers will do *double work:* of course, there being only a certain demand for labour, the labour falls.

'2. Being further questioned, the same witness states, that, under these circumstances, the labourer "*very often* does *too much work*, and *works beyond his strength* when grain is very high. At other times he is idle when grain is low."

'3. "The witness further states, that in a dear year his bailiff requested permission to have some particular work executed *then*, rather than at any other time; because he could do it so much cheaper, a *great many labourers being idle* from having *little work* in consequence of those who *were* employed *doing double work.* I desired him," says the witness, "to go on with that labour likewise; and he actually contracted for very large ditches at SIXPENCE AN ELL, which I do not think I could now do under from a SHILLING to EIGHTEEN PENCE, in consequence of the fall of provisions."

'"4. Being asked, Did you ever know an instance in Scotland where, wages remaining low, and the price of bread rising, relief in that case was given to labourers who *were capable* of working? The witness answers, "*No! I never did.*"

'Being again asked, Do you recollect an instance in Scotland of general parochial relief being ever given to the poor in consequence of the high price of provisions? he answers, "*No, I do not.* In the towns, in times of scarcity, we have soup kitchens, which have been maintained by private subscription."

'Now, in the first of these answers, we have the fact stated, that, when the labourer is least capable of extra work, he is ground down by a forced exertion of *double work.*

'In the second, we have one extremely natural consequence, that he does too much work, or works beyond his strength.

'In the third place, we have another result equally natural, and almost equally humane and profitable to society, viz. that this *double work* and exhaustion of one portion of the labourers by excessive exertion, tends to exhaust the other portion by actual want of food, in consequence of their having *little work* to do, at a time when a very great deal of work is absolutely necessary (under the system detailed), even to enable them to provide a scanty supply of necessaries for their families; for,

'4th, and lastly, We find that relief is never given to labourers who are *capable* of working, however incapable they may be of finding work, however low the rate of wages, however scanty the means of employment, and however high the price of provisions.'

This extract may be considered as a synopsis of the whole pamphlet; though our readers will easily perceive that it exhibits only one corner of the subject, and that many reasons of an opposite nature might be alleged: in particular, the grand one that the greater part of the lower orders in Scotland live in the enjoyment of comfort. On this, however, our limits do not permit us to enlarge; and we shall conclude by remarking that Mr. W. takes great pains to remove the idea of his entertaining any impression that the conduct of the Scotish landholders is not honourable and benevolent. His good opinion of them is expressed in the dedication, as well as in different passages of his pamphlet.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 23. *A Practical Treatise on Gas-Light;* exhibiting a summary Description of the Apparatus and Machinery best calculated for illuminating Streets, Houses, and Manufactories, with Carburetted Hydrogen or Coal-gas; with Remarks on the Utility, Safety, and general Nature of this new Branch of Civil Economy. By Fred. Accum, Operative Chemist, Lecturer on Chemistry, &c. &c. With Seven Coloured Plates. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

The substitution of what have been called gas-lights, instead of the ordinary method of illuminating streets or buildings by lamps or candles, appears to us the most fortunate application of chemistry to economical purposes that has occurred in this age of improvements. In too many instances, cheapness is the only consideration, so that many of our modern manufactures are evidently made merely to be sold: but, in the present case, the article produced is as excellent as it is cheap. The remark of Mr. Accum is strictly correct, that the brilliancy of the gas-light is as much superior to that of the common method of illuminating, as a bright summer-sun is to a murky November day. Some mechanical difficulties have occurred in the proper application of it, and in the adaptation of the machinery: but these are now chiefly overcome; and, although it is impossible to say that farther and even very important improvements may not still be made, we may affirm that, in its present state, the apparatus may be applied to most purposes of convenience and utility.

After some introductory observations, which are sufficiently common-place, on the progress of the arts of life, and their effect on the morals and condition of the human race, the author gives an account of the different methods that have been employed, at various times, for the production of artificial light; first, by the simple combustion of fuel, and afterward by the more neat and efficacious mode of lamps and candles. He also details the theory of the action of candles in furnishing the regular supply of combustible matter to the flame; a process which is extremely curious, but which passes so commonly before our eyes that we pay little attention to it. In the next section, Mr. Accum lays down the method of ascertaining the illuminating power of lamps, candles, and other luminous bodies, and enters into some calculations to shew the proportion which the intensity of the light produced bears to the quantity of combustible substance consumed. After this preliminary matter, we proceed to the immediate subject of the work, the gas-light; and first the author briefly states the notice which has been taken of it by the legislature, and the nature of the charter granted to the London Company. The powers given to them appear to be sufficiently limited, enough probably to afford a reasonable emolument, but not so great as to enable them to encroach on the rights of the public, or to form a monopoly. The theory of the combustion of coal, the manner in which the gas is extricated from it and only partially consumed in common fire-places, and the different processes by which it is collected and purified in the gas-light apparatus, are explained and illustrated by plates.

In the next section, we have an historical sketch of the discovery of the illuminating power of the gas produced from coal, and its application to economical purposes as a substitute for lamps and candles. It appears to us from this statement that Mr. Murdoch has the principal merit of the application of the coal-gas for procuring artificial light, while Mr. Clegg is intitled to that of the mechanical contrivances connected with the apparatus. This section contains some comparative estimates of the expence of the gas-light illumination, and of an equal quantity of light produced by other means. We apprehend that no doubt can be entertained of the economy of the new method: but we think that the superior brilliancy of the effect is a more powerful argument in its favour than even the saving of expence which it occasions. — In a concluding section, Mr. Accum enumerates, at some length, the different objects for which he conceives the gas-light to be more peculiarly adapted, and also mentions those for which it is less suitable. He afterward describes the nature of the other products that are obtained by the distillation of coal; and which, though objects of secondary importance, are not to be disregarded. Of these the principal is the charred coal or coak, which will no doubt on many occasions be substituted for coal, when a regular supply can be obtained at an easy rate.

The volume concludes with some plates representing the different kinds of apparatus that have been employed for preparing the gas on the larger scale, and the ornamental designs that have been formed for its use in the interior of houses. On the whole, though Mr. Accum's work is not a very scientific performance, it may be considered as containing a good popular view of the subject; and as sufficiently well adapted for explaining both the theory and the practice of the new method of procuring light from the distillation of coal.

Art. 24. *The Historical Remembrancer;* or an Epitome of Universal History: including a chronological List of Battles, Sieges, Revolutions, Discoveries, eminent Men, &c. &c. from the earliest Period to 1814. By David Steuart, Esq. Illustrated with a Chart of British and Foreign History. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Baldwin.

The accompaniment to this pocket volume consists of a folded historic chart, on which are specified, in parallel columns, the principal events and personages that have been remarked in Europe since the Christian era. Then follows an epitome of antient history, in which an attempt is made to assign specific dates to events of unknown and inscrutable antiquity; such as the creation, the death of Adam, the birth of Noah, and the Deluge. The time in which Moses flourished is not yet ascertained within five hundred years; nor can any earlier event be dated otherwise than from his legation and on his authority. The kings of Assyria are named as confidently as if we possessed any trust-worthy chronicle of their appellations. In short, all the rubbish of the old chronologers is here regularly piled up anew.—Modern history succeeds; and a catalogue is given of eminent persons and memorable occurrences. This list is very comprehensive, and has the merit of omitting unascertained dates; thus suggesting matter for inquiry and investigation. Among memorable events, are reckoned Laws, Courts of Justice, Taxes, Voyages, Colonizations, Improvements in Art or Science, Earthquakes, Floods, Universities founded, Kingdoms transferred, Monuments erected, Associations incorporated, Religious and Benevolent Institutions commenced, Titles conferred, and similar interesting facts. These are classed under successive heads, and the date of each is annexed. In short, the work is a chronological register of all that men are most likely to wish to recollect, or to want to ascertain: but we object to it that something of caprice and singularity is apparent in the selection of the matter: that some important things are missed, and some trifles inserted. For instance: among the *Massacres* (p. 230.) is omitted that which gave occasion to the institution of the feast of Purim: while, under the head *Jews*, it is recorded (p. 386.) that sixty were killed at a wedding in Mantua by a floor giving way. In a future edition, no doubt, supplementary materials will be inserted; and perhaps the self-denial will be exerted which is requisite for expunging superfluities of detail.

In p. 505., line *penult.*, the substitution of the word *latter* for *former* makes an important error.

Art. 25. *The Present of a Mistress to a Young Servant:* consisting of friendly Advice and real Histories. By Mrs. Taylor, of Ongar. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Taylor and Hessey. 1816.

We are happy to announce another publication by this judicious and useful writer, particularly as we think that the present will be found among the most valuable of Mrs. Taylor's productions. The size of the volume is attractive; and the style, though correct, is so unaffected and simple that every word will be understood by the class of readers for which it is designed. It is, moreover, recommended by several apposite and pleasing anecdotes; because, as servants can seldom be persuaded to study dry sermons on their duties, Mrs. Taylor has wisely contrived to amuse and interest while she improves them. We think that her instructions will not be deemed too minute, though some of them are serious and affectionate cautions against such misdemeanours as were the subjects of satire in Swift's "Advice to Servants:" but, in the concluding chapter, on Religion, we find not the same art of descending to particulars which forms a great merit of the pages preceding it. The general observations here are good and pious, but some plain practical directions for reading the Scriptures, and for regularly praying in private, might advantageously have been added.

Art. 26. *An Essay on the Effects of the inequitable Modes of pursuing Trade:* with analogous Remedies; comprizing a Dissertation upon the Diminution and Remuneration of Labour. By a Liveryman of London. 8vo. pp. 92. Wilson.

We have here, on the whole, a curious performance, the production apparently of a man of business accustomed to yield to first impressions, and to give himself a very moderate share of trouble in following up a course of reasoning. His tract records a number of irregularities in trade, and professes to point out the mode of correcting them, without taking into the account that the proposed remedy is frequently at variance with the undoubted right of every man to do that which does not injure his neighbour; and, moreover, without considering that the suggested amelioration would often produce effects very contrary to appearances. The different topics discussed are detailed very specifically in a long table of contents: but the body of the pamphlet has much less method or clearness than we might have expected from so comprehensive a statement in the outset. The great error of the author consists in supposing it either advisable or practicable to modify, by goverment-regulations, the different pursuits of mercantile men. Speculation, for example, he considers (p. 6, 7.) as a very bad thing; and he proposes, (p. 28.) with all imaginable gravity, a method for its suppression. He is much nearer the point when he passes (p. 29.) to the policy of privileged companies of merchants, and bids us look to the Americans for a lesson with regard to the true mode of conducting India-trade.

This small volume is full of typographical errors, of the strangest kind; a circumstance which, with the want of division into sections or chapters, will probably prevent the writer from gaining credit on those matters which he actually understands. If he should be induced to print a second edition, we recommend to him a classification of his subjects; a reduction of his immoderate paragraphs; and the study of the leading principles of Political Economy in Smith's Wealth of Nations, or in the French work of M. Say.

SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 27. *The Temptations of a Watering-Place, and the best Means of counteracting their Influence:* — preached at Union-street Chapel, Brighton, August 13. 1815. By John Styles, D.D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Williams and Son.

It was a saying of old Dick Baxter, that "the Devil often tempted the industrious; but that idle people tempted the Devil." On this principle, our watering-place visitors may be regarded as playing *into the Devil's hands*, or as actually soliciting him "to mark them for his own." Alive to the dangers which result even to men of good principles and conduct from systematic idleness and dissipation, Dr. Styles protests against watering-places in this point of view; and we think that his protest is of such a nature that all true Christians will take it into their most serious consideration. His sermon is, in fact, a dissuasive addressed to the religious world against carrying their families to Brighton, or to places similarly circumstanced. He notices the effects of breaking up the domestic system, on coming to a watering-place; of removing the usual restraints; of lounging, sauntering, and novel-reading; and, above all, of the indiscriminate mixture of characters of all descriptions in the circulating libraries, where the moral principle is in danger of being relaxed, and habits of idling and gaming are contracted. He does not notice the want of decorum in the *mode* of bathing.—For a counteracting principle, the "fear of God" is properly recommended: but, in the midst of this most serious admonition, we did not expect the preacher to take us to Solomon's Song, and bid us wait for the *South Wind* of the Holy Spirit "to blow on our spices."

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are glad to oblige an old Friend and Correspondent by inserting the following Letter; and we leave its contents with the reader, uninfluenced by our comments.

'To the Editor of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

'Sir,

'IN turning over your Reviews, I find that the paragraph respecting Tigellinus in the first satire of Juvenal has been a stumbling block to the critics and translators. I apprehend the difficulty is easily removable. Juvenal means to say,—Dare to satirize Tigellinus, and you will be put to death by the cruellest torments; while your satire leaves no more impression on him than a furrow drawn in the sand within the tide-mark.—He draws a broad furrow in the sand between the sea and shore which the next tide will wash away. The passage is

"*Pone Tigellinum, tedâ lucebis in illâ,*
Quâ stantes ardent, qui fixo guttere fumânt;
Et latum media sulcum (Tigellinus) *deducit arena.*"

'Besides this place, a similar phrase seems misunderstood in Virgil. Dido, on the flight of Æneas, among other imprecations, prays that he may be *media inhumatus arena*, which is generally understood to mean that he may lie unburied on the the sea-shore. Now I apprehend her prayer to be that he may be buried in the sand between the sea and the shore, so that on the first return of the tide his grave may be obliterated and his memory forgotten. I am, Sir, &c.

'Wigton, Galloway, Feb. 1816. 'ROBERT COUPER.'

We do not intend to neglect the object of *G. H. A.*'s inquiry.

R. P. Q. will find our report of the work about which he is solicitous, in our last Appendix.

In the last Review, p. 162. l. 33. insert *the* before '*decayed*.' p. 215. l. 16. for 'they,' r. *our readers.*

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For APRIL, 1816.

Art. I. *Culloden Papers*, &c. &c.

[*Article concluded from p.* 244.]

Our first abstract of this interesting collection brought down the narrative of the Rebellion in 1745 to the unfortunate affair of Preston-pans. (21st Sept.) The Pretender's brilliant success in that battle had the effect of facilitating materially the levies among the insurgent clans, and increased the Highlanders under his command to the number of 7000. With these followers, he took the bold resolution of advancing southward; and he entered England, by the western border, in the beginning of November. His march was preceded by emissaries carrying instructions to the following effect:

> ' You are herereby authorized and directed to repair forthwith to England, and there notifie to my friends, and particularly those in the North and North-west, the wonderful success with which it has hitherto pleased God to favour my endeavours for their deliverance. You are to let them know that it is my full intention, in a few days, to move towards them; and that they will be inexcuseable before God & man, if they do not all in their power to assist & support me in such an undertaking. What I demand & expect is, That as many of them as can should be ready to joyn me; and that they should take care to provide Provisions & Money, that the Country may suffer as little as possible by the march of my Troops. Let them know that there is no more time for deliberation; now or never, is the word. I am resolved to conquer or perish. If this last should happen, let them judge what they & their posterity have to expect.
>
> ' C. P. R.'

For some time, fortune appeared to favour these daring adventurers: Carlisle surrendered in the course of a few days; and they continued to march into the heart of the country with little opposition. Their progress, however, ought in a great measure to be ascribed to the divided state (pp. 227. 254.) of his Majesty's advisers; and they soon found that no hopes were to be entertained from an insurrection in England, the extensive county of Lancashire, reputed by the Pretender to be full of his zealous adherents, adding scarcely two hundred men to his standard. In the meantime, General Wade in Northumberland, and the Duke of Cumberland near Litchfield, had each assembled a force superior to that of the invaders; so that, after having advanced with very great hazard as far as Derby, it became indispensable for the latter to take the mortifying determination of retreating. The activity of the Highlanders, and the lightness of their baggage, enabled them to retrace their steps with an expedition that eluded pursuit, and prevented even the hostile cavalry from being so supported by infantry as to justify any serious attacks on their rear. The retreat began on the 6th of December, and in a fortnight the rebels were again on Scotish ground, without losing above fifty men by the sword or by sickness, during a march of more than 500 miles in the depth of winter. Carlisle was now soon retaken by the royalists, and Edinburgh had for some time been re-occupied by them: but a more important consideration still was the almost unanimous disposition among the inhabitants of the south and west of Scotland, to oppose the attempt of an adventurer whom they considered as the champion of popery and arbitrary power. To these were to be added the unwearied exertions of President Forbes in the north, supported at last by the arrival of a small supply of arms and money, and the co-operation of an intelligent and active friend in the Earl of Loudon:

' *From the E. of Loudon & the Lord President to Marishall Wade, or the Commander in Chief in the North.*

' Sir, Nov. 16. 1745.

' As we are sending dispatches for London by the Saltash sloop to Newcastle, we judged it might be for his Majestie's service, to drop you this short notice, to let you know the present situation of this country; which is in substance, that, except Mac Pherson of Clunie, with about 300 men from Badenoch, no body of Highlanders of any consequence have, from the country to the northward of Athole, join'd those who originally took possession of Edin^{r}, or added to their numbers in their march towards England: that about 200 of the tribes dependant on the Clanchattan, with some men from Breumar, & some other small partys, had got together at Perth last Saturday; where, they said, they waited for further reinforcements from the north; that 150 or 160 Mac Kenzies, seduced by the E. of Cromarty, march'd the beginning of this week up the north side of Lochness, & depended upon being follow'd by 5 or 600 Frasers, under the conduct of the Master of Lovat; but these Mac Kenzies have not as yet pass'd the mountains; neither have the Frasers yet march'd out of their own country; & we have some hopes they will not, as we have now 700 Highlanders in pay at Inverness, & look hourly for some hundreds more, with which we shall endeavour to perswade them to stay at home; that we hope immediately to open the communication with Fort Augustus & Fort William, & thereafter to march some indepen^t compauys into Banf & Aberdeen shires, to obstruct effectually the recruiting of Lord Lewis Gordon for the Pretender's service, which goes on but heavily at present; and that, when this is done, we shall be ready to do what further shall appear necessary, & be within our power, for putting ane end to the present rebellion. We wish you heartily good success, & are,

'Sir,

'Your most ob^t & most humble serv^{ts}, &c.

'Postscript. Last Fryday, Mac Leod, with 400 of his kindred, join'd us; which gives up hopes that we shall prevent the march of the Frasers, who are not yet gone. There is a great fall of snow on the ground.

'17 Nov^r.'

Yet all these advantages could not accomplish a speedy extinction of the rebellion; the inhabitants of the low country being unacquainted with the use of arms, and the Highlanders maintaining all their characteristic reputation for activity and enterprize. Lord John Drummond, the brother of the titular Duke of Perth, found means to land at Montrose with a detachment of Irish troops in the French service; and the auxiliaries from the Isle of Sky met (p. 466.) with a severe check in Aberdeenshire from Lord Lewis Gordon. The proceedings of the President and Lord Loudon were likewise much embarrassed by the tergiversation of Lord Lovat, who still continued (p. 256.) to protest his inability to prevent the departure of his clan, or to controul what he termed the headstrong impatience of his son. "I was thunderstruck," he said, (p. 260.) "on hearing that my son had set out. It has been my misfortune to be traduced and calumniated through life, and I am extremely sorry that Lord Loudon should listen to the calumny of my enemies." This nobleman at last prevailed on Lovat to quit his country-seat, to reside for an interval at Inverness, to deliver up his arms, and to give orders to his clan to keep quiet.

'*The Lord President to the Marquis of Tweeddale.*

'My Lord, Culloden, 22° Dec^r 1745.

'E. Loudoun prevail'd with Lord Lovat on Wednesday the 11th to come into In^s alongst with him, & to live there under his eye, untill he should bring in all the Arms which the Clan were possest of; which he promised to do against Saturday's Night, excuseing himself from answering for his Son, & some of the mad young men of his name, who he said he could not govern; & some of which, he inform'd us, had already gone to Perth; which we knew to be true, to the number of between 2 & 300, in different small parties. The surrender of the Arms was all that could well be expected from him. As there was no direct evidence of his accession to his Son's treason, of which he was perpetually complaining; & as committing, on suspicion, a man so aged, & seemingly so infirm, would have had the appearance of cruelty, therefor Lord Loudoun determined to await the delivery of the Arms; & in the mean time on Fryday the 13th, detach'd 200 men more, under Cap^{tn} Munro of Culcairn, to follow Mac Leod to Elgin & Aberdeen; & these were to be followed successively by other small bodys, & by Loudoun himself, when the matter with Lovat was finished. But instead of delivering the Arms at the time prefixed, excuses were made, & fresh promises; which continued from day to day till last Thursday; when Lord Loudoun, finding himself deluded, clap'd centries on the gate of the house where he resided, resolveing to committ him next morning to the Castle; but in the night time Lovat found means to get out at a back passage, which was not suspected (as, indeed, his attempting ane escape, in his state of health, was what no one dream'd of), & to be conveyed away, probably on men's shoulders; but whither, we have not as yet learn'd.

'This unforseen accident has made it improper for Loudoun to detach any more Men after those that have march'd towards Aberdeen, or to follow them himself, untill we see what turn Lovat, now at liberty, takes with his Clan; or until some more force, which we expect, join us at Inverness.'—

'Since my last, the Rebells at Perth have had no accession of strength from this Country, except the Frasers to the number of between 2 & 300 already mentioned, & some Mac Donalds of Clanranald's People from Moidart, who marched through Atholl 6 days ago, escorting some Spanish Money that was put ashore in the island of Barray. The quantity I do not know; but as it escaped the vigilance of his Majestie's ships cruiseing in that station, tho' notice was sent to them by Mac Leod, it has been in open boats transported to Moidart, and from thence, on horses (for wheel carriage is impossible), to Atholl.'

The influence of Lovat was unluckily directed against the cause of government, and proved one of the principal reasons of the protracted resistance of the Pretender.—The alarm excited for the metropolis by the approach of his troops had prevented government, for some time, from sending to the north of Scotland any addition to their first scanty supply of arms and money; and the consequence was a great impediment to the measures which might otherwise have been taken to equip and send out the well affected Highlanders:

'*Part of a Letter from the Lord President to the E. of Stair.*

Dec^{r} 22. 1745.

'It is a little discourageing, my Lord, that endeavours so sincere, &, if you will give me leave to say it, so successful, for the support of the Gov^{t}. & the security of England, as ours have been, should be treated with such neglect. And though there might be some excuse for not minding us whilst an enemy was so near London; yet if, when that danger is happily removed, care is not taken to supply our wants, when without such supply we shall be in no condition to defend ourselves from the warm resentments of the Rebels, or to do any further service to the Gov^{t}; the danger, dishonour, & expence, that may ensue, on the continuation of a Rebellion in this corner of the Country till the Spring, cannot be chargeable on us.

'You see, my Lord, I write with some emotion: & it is no wonder; for I must look upon myself as the cause of all the sufferings of those who I have prevail'd with to risk every thing in defence of the Gov^{t}, should the Rebells prevaill over them; & that for the want of those supplys which I perswaded them they should have, & which had they received, or if they yet shall receive in time, every thing must be safe. Your Lop, I am persuaded, will feel the justice of my complaint; and I am confident there is never a man in England but must, if the case is fairly stated to him.'

'*Mr. John Forbes to the Lord President.*

'My Lord, London, 9th January, 1746.

'I take the opportunity of the sloop which the government sends, to assure you of my best wishes, & to congratulate you upon the figure you make in this part of the world; who are surprised to find a man, without views, standing up for the rights & libertys of his country.

'I wish to God your interest of persuasion, joined to the opinion the world has of your disinterestedness, and the knowledge they agree you have of your country, cou'd be convey'd here, to second good Lord Stair's, in the many though fruitless attempts his Lordship has made to save, if possible, the ruin of the north, and effectually finish the rebellion before the spring. But, at present, any proposalls from L^{d} Stair are, I am afraid, neglected, lest by their success he should gett power, which is not the interest of the present ruler; who, although not publicly declared, yet privately manages the Scots affairs, with the same despotism he ever has done.

'We flattered ourselves here, that the Duke was to go to Scotland himself; but that seems now to be no longer believ'd, and the whole burthen [is] left upon Hawley, and your old friend Hugh, his aid-de-camp. No mortal disputes Mr. Hawley's genius for the management of a squadron, or prosecuting with vigour any mortal to the gallows; although, at the same time, they wish that he had the lenity to make converts, or the absolute force to make all fly before him.'

The predictions of the writer with regard to General Hawley were soon verified. That officer having been present as a major of cavalry in the action with the Highlanders at Sheriff Muir in 1715, and being full of blind confidence, had boasted that with two regiments of dragoons he would ride over the whole of the Pretender's army. When he heard, therefore, that they had begun the investment of Stirling

Castle,

Castle, instead of allowing them to waste their force in a kind of warfare for which they were unqualified, he advanced hastily from Edinburgh to attack them:

' *Mr. Corse to the Lord President.*

' My Lord, Edinburgh, 15th February.

' So soon as General Hawley had got 12 Battalions together, w^{t}out any other Dragoons than Hamilton and Gardner's, he sent five Regiments of foot & the Dragoons on to Lithco, & the Glasgow Regiment to the Queensferry; whose approach was so sudden & unexpected, that they had very near surprized 1,500 of the Rebels at Lithco, who retir'd immediately to Falkirk. Next day three more Regiments were sent to support them; & on the Wednesday three more, with whom M. Gen^{ll} Husk march'd on the Thurday to Falkirk, & encamp'd on the North side of the Town, the front of the Camp towards Stirling; & the same evening he was join'd by another Regiment of foot, with ten pieces of Cannon, from six pounders to a pound and half. The same evening M^{r} Hawley arriv'd at Callendar House about 8 o'clock at night, & turn'd me and some more of us out of our beds. He left that place, & went to the Camp about 5 o'clock of the morning; about 9 o'clock we were join'd by about 800 Argyleshire men & Cobham's Dragoons, who had march'd from Lithco that morning; & then the whole was together; viz. 12 Battalions of foot, w^{ch}, to the best of my computation, might show in the field, one with another, about 400 men a-piece. Three regiments of Dragoons about 200 a-piece. 800 Argyleshire men; in which were three Companys of L^{d} Loudoun's, & one of L^{d} John Murray's; besides the Glasgow people, who then were about 700 strong, & tolerably disciplin'd.

' The Highlanders lay behind the Torwood, having left about 800 men before Stirling. I am pretty sure the Army they led on that day to the Battle did not much exceed 5,000 men of all kinds.

' About 10 o'clock M^{r} Hawley went out to a little eminence on the left of the Camp, & 500 yards nearer the Enemy, to reconnoitre the grounds between our Camp & y^{e} Torwood; where I heard some of the Officers say, they saw them moving on this side of the Torwood southwards. This proved true; though I saw nothing, neither did M^{r} Hawley. However, about eleven o'clock we got the alarm, & in a very short space were all under Arms, & remain'd so a quarter of an hour. Then we found out it was a false alarm, & we all turn'd in again, & went to look out for dinner, which was not easy to be found; & after it was found we got no time to eat it; for a little before two the last alarm came, when the Enemy was within a mile & a half of us. I was surpriz'd to see in how little time y^{e} regular troops were form'd (I think in less than half an hour) on y^{e} left of y^{e} Camp, in two lines, with the Dragoons on y^{e} flanks; all fronting the South, & just along the side of the high road leading to Stirling; the road in their front, & Falkirk on their left. We all thought that there we were to wait for the Enemy, who was now plainly in view, coming along the hills from the South-west. M^{r} Hawley, it seems, had another notion; for no sooner was the Army form'd, than he marched them straight up a steep hill w^{ch} lyes to the South-west of Falkirk, in two Columns; in order, I suppose, to gain a large Moor which they say is on the top of that Hill, & w^{h} may be so for me, & I believe for his Excellency too; for neither of us saw it, at least before the action. All the Dragoons were sent on before, & form'd upon the top of the hill; and there the action began.

'Our post was behind the two Lines of foot, & to the left; & we had got something more than two thirds up the hill when y^{e} firing began; upon w^{ch} we form'd there, but not in very good order. Our cannon, that was to have been in the front, stuck fast somewhere about the bottom of the hill; & indeed no force could have drawn it up to the top. The Highlanders' first line (as I was told, for I could see nothing almost y^{t} was done on the top of the hill) outstretch'd our left considerably; their right, I saw, did not pass the centre of our line of foot. The Dragoons being all on our left, helped to lengthen our first line, and there the affair began. Certainly, while the foot was marching up the hill in columns, & the heads of the columns had just reach'd the top of the hill, & the rest marching up as hard as they could, running & quite out of breath w^{h} the fatigue, the Dragoons charg'd very briskly; but upon receiving a very sharp popping kind of a fire, they went off. I believe they suffer'd a good deal; for in one part of them nearest us I saw day light through them in several places. When the Dragoons were beat, y^{e} right of the Highlanders chasing them (as they took straight down the hill among the foot) appear'd upon our flanks. The flanks of both Lines gave way, down to the centre; and then the whole first Line went off, all running down the hill, except Ligonier's Regiment of foot, which was quite on the right, and near the bottom of the hill. L^{t} Col^{l} Stanhope, a fine lively young lad, a brother of Lord Stanhope's, fac'd that Regiment (w^{h} was not quite 300 men) to the hill & stood alone for near 5 minutes, till Barrell's Regiment, of about 400 men, came out of the 2^{d} line & join'd them, and there the first stop was made. The enemy, instead of following in where the Troops gave way, w^{ch} they might have done, took it into their heads to stretch their left down to the bottom of the hill; in doing of which, it was so warmly received by these two Regiments, that they all scampered up the hill again. Gen^{l} Husk formed a pretty strong line of foot by rallying the runaways at the bottom of the hill; & then they all march'd into the Camp, not in very good order.

'The great storm of rain & wind w^{ch} began about ten minutes before the action had rendered their arms useless, & wet all the Soldiers' cartridges; so the baggage horses were order'd to be loaded (few of them were found), & the tents to be burnt. Three pieces of cannon were drawn off by the Soldiers; the rest were left, because the Artillery Guard had fled, and the country people had cut out all their horses.—The Argyleshire men were not engaged; however, a good many of them fell into the Enemy's hands; one whole Company in particular, commanded by one M'Neil. That same night the Army march'd to Lithco, & next Day to Ed^r, where we were much insulted by the Jacobites.

'This is my account of the battle; part of it I saw, & part I took from others, which corresponded with what I saw. It lasted but a short while, as I believe all actions with these people do; but why they did not use their advantage, & enter where the Troops were broke sword in hand, as is their way; & in the next place, why they did not pursue when the Army marched to Lithco, when all fire-arms were useless, is not to be comprehended. They cannot, in all human probability, ever have such another opportunity.'

This action took place on the 17th of January 1746; and though, in consequence of the steadiness of Major-General Huske, it was less disastrous than the affair of Preston-pans, the result was a considerable discouragement of the royalist-party. It now became expedient for the Duke of Cumberland to put himself at the head of the troops in Scotland; and the Pretender, making no impression on Stirling Castle, marched northwards in the hope of finding, in the difficulty of the ground, a counterpoise to the superior numbers of his opponents. Lord Loudon and the President were now obliged to quit the spot whence they had issued so many bold mandates against the rebels, and to seek refuge with the Macleods in the Isle of Sky. The labours of the President were, no doubt, continued, but the collection before us supplies no document later than the end of January, soon after which Fort George and Fort Augustus fell into the hands of the rebels. The principal error of the latter consisted in fighting a pitched battle on the open ground of Culloden, against an army greatly superior in numbers, and taught, by dear-bought experience, to adopt precautions calculated to baffle the violent assault of the mountaineers: while the chief causes of the very different results at Culloden and at Falkirk are to be sought in the disposition of the troops, in their familiarity with the manner of the onset of the Highlanders, and particularly in the order that every second rank should reserve its fire till the enemy had come close up. The following are parts of a letter written by the President nearly a month after this decisive battle, at which time he had returned to the neighbourhood of his estate:

'*The Lord President to Mr. Geo. Ross.*

'Dear George, Inverness 13^th May 1746.

'My peregrination is now over. Some account of my Adventures you surely have had from different hands. To give an exact one is the work of more time than I can at present afford. The difficultys I had to grapple with were many: the issue, on the main, has been favourable; & upon a strict review, I am satisfyed with my own conduct.—What distress'd us most in this country, & was the reall cause why the Rebells came to a head after their flight from Stirling, was the want of arms & money; which, God knows, had been long enough called for and expected: had these come in due time, we could have arm'd a force sufficient to have prevented their looking at us on this side Drumuachter. The men were prepared; severall hundreds assembled in their own countrys, & some hundreds actually on their march. But unluckyly, the ship that brought the few arms that were sent, & the sum of money that came, did not arrive in our road sooner than the very day on which the Rebells made themselves masters of the Barrack of Ruthven. It was then too late to fetch unarm'd men from distances; it was even unsafe to land the arms & the money; so we were forced to suffer them to remain on board, & to retreat with the force we had, to preserve them for the further annoyance of the enemy.'

We come now to the closing scene in the life of Lord Lovat, who had been apprehended, committed to the Tower of London, tried, and convicted.—A Correspondent, writing to the President from London on the 9th of April 1747, observes:

'It is astonishing with what resolution and *sang-froid* Lovat dyed to-day. He said, one of his predecessors 500 years ago had dyed in the same way for his principles; that his principles had been constant and invariable; that in the course of his life he had never betrayed them, nor any body; nor should any Peer or Commoner be hurt from what he should say. He ended at *Dulce et Decorum est*, &c. and laid down his head. His conversation in the Tower has all along been in the same strain. He said, the day before he dyed, he was never in better spirits; and did tell Doct^{r} Clark, that the Tower was a better receipt for the spirits than the vomits he used to give him.'

The clue to the mysterious conduct of Lord Lovat is, in our opinion, to be found in the impression that, under any circumstances, he might expect pardon from the house of Hanover; while from the Stuarts he could look for nothing but punishment, unless he redeemed in 1745 the crime of having opposed them in 1715. His letter of October 30., already quoted, appears to us indicative of his real sentiments, and particularly of his belief that George II. would not, in any event, involve in ruin the antient families who had engaged in the Rebellion. Lovat possessed great cunning and intrepidity, but wanted depth; his schemes throughout life being planned with more audacity than judgment. On the present occasion, the criminality of his conduct admitted of no doubt: though his age and former services pleaded in his behalf with government, it was necessary to hold forth an example; and there could be no question that the guilt of a father grown grey in artifice was greater than that of a youth who had merely finished his University-course. If the favour shewn to Lord Lovat in 1715 reflected no credit on the government of the day, the punishment of him in 1745 seemed, in some measure, to redeem the odium of that unjust indulgence; while the lenity shewn to the young man and his inexperienced followers was calculated to attach the clan at large to the interests of the house of Hanover.

The hazards encountered by the Pretender, during his confinement in the Highlands, have been noticed by us elsewhere; (M. R. Vol. xxxviii. p. 9.) and the present volume contains few additional particulars in that respect, except his adventure in the Isle of Sky, to which Dr. Johnson alludes in his Tour to the Hebrides:

'*Extract of a Letter from Sir Alexander Macdonald of the Isle of Sky, dated 29th July* 1746.

'When the young Pretender made his unhappy visit to Skye, from South Uist, in a small boat, he landed near my house, in woman's clothes, by way of being maid-servant to one Florence Macdonald, a girl of Clanranald's family, now a prisoner with General Campbell. Miss Macdonald went and made a visit to Lady Margaret, dined with her, and put her into the utmost distress by telling her of the cargo that she had brought from Uist. She called on Kingsborrow, who was at Mugstot accidentally, and they had a very confused consultation together; and it was agreed to hurry him off the country as fast as possible. The method Kingsborrow took was, to meet him about two miles from my house, in the way to his own. He (the Pretender) accosted him with telling him that his life was now in his hands, which he might dispose of; that he was in the utmost distress, having had no meat or sleep for two days and two nights, sitting on a rock beat upon by the rains; and when they ceased, ate up by flys; conjured him to shew compassion but for one night, and he should be gone. This moving speech prevailed, and the visible distress, for he was maigre, ill coloured, and over-run with the scab; so they went to Kingsborrow's house, where he lay that night; and he furnished him a horse to carry him seven miles next day to Portree. There he found, accidentally, a small Rasay boat, into which he put foot and disappeared all at once.'

It was, in fact, a circumstance highly creditable to the poor Highlanders, that, though they perfectly knew of the sum of 30,000l. sterling being offered for the apprehension of the Pretender, and though, in the course of his wanderings during five months he passed through a number of hands, not a single individual ever thought of degrading himself by earning even this large premium.

Next to the Earl of Loudon, one of the most engaging Characters in the correspondence of the Lord President is Mr. Mit-

Mr. Mitchell, afterward Sir Andrew Mitchell. Our readers have occasionally seen passages in his letters during the time of the Rebellion, and we shall now close our extracts by a few paragraphs relative to his own views and prospects.

' *From Sir Andrew Mitchell to the Lord President.*

' My Dear Lord, ' London, 6th April 1747.

' As you have long been my Oracle, you will forgive the freedom I take with you on this occasion; first, to desire your advice as to the expediency of my being in parliament; and then to ask your opinion as to the probability of success, and as to the means I should make use of. But, in order to enable you to satisfy my requests, it will be proper to acquaint you with my inclinations, connexions, and views.

' As to the first, I own my desires formerly were stronger than they are now; and I have seen so much of the management of parties, and known too many members, to think of the H. of Com. as I once did; yet still I find my wishes of this kind are not extinguished.

' If words are to be depended on, I have reason to expect favours from those who have it in their power to give; and what promises have been made me, I have the pleasing vanity to think are neither owing to mean arts, nor to cringing behaviour; but still the promises of great men are lighter than air, and their dispositions more uncertain than the weather. The only way, therefore, to fix them is, to be in a situation to serve or to hurt them.

' My views, I confess to you, are neither so honest nor so disinterested as they have been. I desire, nay I am resolved, to act a fair & honourable part, if ever I shall be in Parliament; but I do propose a reward for myself, that of being employed, either at home or abroad, in a station agreeable to me, & in which I may be usefull; for my ambition at present is stronger than my avarice.'

The President's answer does not appear in this collection, but it was probably in the affirmative, because Mr. Mitchell came into parliament and was afterward employed as a diplomatist, being ambassador, during the war of 1756, at the Court of Berlin.

It would be difficult to find words to express the gratitude of the public for the unparalleled exertions of the President during the Rebellion. Lord Stair wrote (p. 253.) from London in November 1745, that it was "impossible to speak of him with more esteem, value, and even friendship than his Majesty had frequently done." Another correspondent, writing from Edinburgh in February 1746, and speaking of the language held by the rebels, says, "We form many schemes for your safety, and are very anxious; as, by their discourse here, you was the chief object of their resentment; especially when they came back from England; for it was their opinion that, with the Macdonalds and Macleods of Sky, the Mackenzies and Frazers, they might have been masters of London."

The President resumed his judicial labours at Edinburgh in July 1746, and proceeded, as soon as he found an interval of time, to pay a final visit to London. The King received him with great distinction, and nothing appears in these papers to indicate a different feeling on the part of ministers: yet it is certain that he never was indemnified for a large proportion of his disbursements during the Rebellion; and various conjectures have been formed (see Introduction, p. 37.) to account for so unmerited a return; all of which may, perhaps, be left out of the question, and the result laid to the account of his Lordship's indifference to pecuniary matters. It appears, moreover, from his affecting address (p. 38.) on his death-bed to his son, that he was unacquainted with the extent of the responsibility which his zeal had led him to incur, until within a few months of his decease. — He survived the extinction of the Rebellion only 18 months: his constitution, long far from robust, having been not a little shaken by the fatigue and anxiety occasioned by late events. He died at Edinburgh in December 1747, at the age of sixty-two, leaving a property so much incumbered by old and by recent engagements, as to excite an apprehension that it would be necessary to sell one half to preserve the other: but his son had the good sense to live in retirement, and thus to retain his paternal acres unimpaired. — When treating of the family-property, it is fit to mention that, in the year 1784, government rescinded the privilege of distilling spirits duty-free from the corn of Ferintosh, a part of the Culloden-estate; a privilege which had been granted to the President's father, in consideration of the heavy loss sustained by the family in the insurrections of the Highlanders in favour of James II. soon after the Revolution. The allowance made by government on the resumption was 21,500l.

The ornamental part of this volume consists of an elegant engraving of the Lord President; of a vignette taken from the statue erected by the Faculty of Advocates to his memory, at an expence of 3000l. sterling; and of a portrait of the Pretender. The last may, as far as we know, be a likeness, but ought not to have found a place in the present work, because it exhibits him between the age of 50 and 60, or more, when his features and character were altogether different from those of the young adventurer of 1745. A more proper accompaniment consists of a number of fac-similes of the handwriting of several of the correspondents introduced in the volume; among which we remarked the signatures of General Monk; Lord Stair; Lord Kaimes; Thomson the poet; and of one who in penmanship as in more important matters took the lead of his cotemporaries, — Lord Hardwicke.

It remains to say a few words on the labours of the editor, whom we suppose to be the present representative of the Culloden-family. The papers are seen to considerable disadvantage from the unlucky circumstance already stated, of a part being printed before the existence of the remainder was known; and objections might likewise be made to several passages in the introduction, (pp. 5. 15. 22. 37.) partly on the score of composition, partly on that of misapprehension: but, on the whole, the remarks of the editor, whether we look to the introduction or to the notes scattered throughout the volume, appear to be candid and impartial. We cannot, however, help regretting the want of an index, which would have been very useful in a collection of such extent, particularly after the interruption of the regular course of arrangement.

Several of the peculiar usages of Scotland are illustrated in this volume, such as (p. 131.) the privilege possessed by a great landholder of making barons, *i. e.* county-voters, against a general election. We find also, in this collection, papers connected with transactions of consequence, to which our limits scarcely permit us to allude; such as (p. 18.) the unfortunate affair of Glenco, and (p. 201.) the more honourable but equally disastrous day of Fontenoy. On the whole, we have seldom seen a publication of greater interest to persons who are engaged in the study of Scotish history in particular, or of the British history generally.

Art. II. *Some Documents respecting the History of the late Events in Spain*, by Don Juan d'Escoiquiz, Don Pedro de Ceballos, and Others. 8vo. pp. 200. 4s. Longman and Co. 1815.

The editor of these documents professes to publish them with the view of their serving as a clue to those writers who may hereafter undertake the history of Spanish affairs for the present age; since they contain self-drawn descriptions of several characters who have had extensive influence in the political concerns of that country. This last remark applies chiefly to that portion of the tract which is occupied by the writings of Escoiquiz, the Confessor of Ferdinand, and the adviser of several of his measures both temporal and spiritual: who is the most prominent character in the collection, and who begins an appeal to his countrymen by complaining of the injury done to his reputation while he was confined in

France from 1808 to 1814; a period during which he was generally considered as the counsellor of Ferdinand's ill fated journey to Bayonne. Desirous of vindicating his character, and of asserting his claim to the name of a "true Spaniard," he felt it incumbent on him to come before the public with a circumstantial detail of the various measures in which he was concerned; and he has accordingly printed a statement of the following events:

1. Proceedings at the court of Ferdinand in March and April, 1808, before the journey to Bayonne.
2. Conferences at Bayonne between Bonaparte and himself.
3. Transactions at Valençay previously to the restoration of Ferdinand.

The proceedings before the journey to Bayonne are remarkable only as indicative of Bonaparte's habitual duplicity, and the credulity of the Spanish cabinet. The latter was at one time to be bribed to subserviency by an advantageous treaty of commerce, and at another by conferring on Ferdinand the title of Emperor: or, when it suited Bonaparte to assume a tone of urgency, great stress was laid on the importance to France of the province of Navarre, as if that mountainous district had been the utmost limit of French ambition. By means of all these hopeful proceedings, possession had been obtained of the fortresses on the frontier, including Barcelona; while an army of 50,000 French occupied all the military positions round Madrid. Intelligence was now received that Bonaparte had set out from Paris, to visit Spain; and Ferdinand was urged by the French General and ambassador to lose no time in proceeding to meet his powerful ally. Escoiquiz relates at considerable length the reasons which prevented him and his brother-counsellors from suspecting the designs of the French ruler. They thought that to force a foreign dynasty on Spain could not fail to throw the nation into the arms of England, and to deprive France of the advantages which she still reaped from the Spanish American colonies. It is curious also to see with what confidence this clerical politician reasons on the mines of Mexico as a lever, which, in the hands of England, might be made to raise almost the whole of Europe against France. — Under these impressions, Ferdinand and his counsellors proceeded northwards, and approached Bayonne on the 20th of April: where they were soon relieved from suspence with regard to the intentions of Bonaparte; being met, at the distance of two leagues from the town, by commissioners who were charged to communicate the afflicting determination of their master to deprive the Bourbon-family of the crown of Spain. They had now, however, gone too far to return; and, on their arrival in the town, Bonaparte was not ashamed to pay Ferdinand a visit. Escoiquiz, having accompanied his master when he returned this compliment, was called aside by Bonaparte, and desired to step into his closet, where a long conference took place: which is given (p. 83.) at great length, and is curious as illustrative both of the projects of the late oppressor of Europe and of the mean artifices to which he stooped to gain a royal favourite, or a person in any situation likely to facilitate the accomplishment of his nefarious designs. It suited his policy to appear to take the part of Ferdinand's father, to treat his late resignation as forced, and to profess a distrust in the attachment of the new king to the interests of France.

'*Emperor.*—I have long been desirous, Monsieur l'Abbé, in consequence of the good character they have given me of you, both for honesty and learning, to speak with you upon the subject of your prince; and more so, that I cannot but take some part in his father's misfortunes: he has appealed to me for justice, and it must be done him. The eyes of Europe are upon me. Having made his abdication at Aranjuez, surrounded by a riotous mob, and in the middle of his mutinous guards, it is clear that he was forced to it; and as my armies were at that moment not only in Spain but near to the scene itself, it might be thought that I had a share in the plot, and was the abettor of an undutiful son who has conspired against, and dethroned his father.—On the other hand, the interests of my empire demand, that the house of Bourbon, whom I must look upon as the implacable enemies of my family, should cease to reign in Spain. This is also the interest of your own nation, since by the change of a dynasty, whose last members have brought those evils upon her, which are the cause of the present discontent, she will enjoy a better constitution, under the family which I shall offer her.—However, out of personal consideration for Prince Ferdinand, who has in this friendly way come to see me at Bayonne, I wish to negotiate with him, and hope that an arrangement I have in contemplation, will be found advantageous to him and his brothers.—You are to tell him in my name, that if he renounces all his rights to the crown of Spain, I will give him Etruria, with the title of kingdom, for him and his male heirs for ever, to hold it in complete independence.—I will, also, give him my niece in marriage, in order to strengthen our ties of friendship; and the marriage shall take place the moment he shall sign the treaty. If he should approve of my plan, the treaty will be drawn up and solemnized immediately: but if not, I will make another with his father, who is expected here every day; and, in that case, neither he nor his brothers will be considered as having a right to stipulate, or receive the least compensation. With respect to the Spanish nation, let Prince Ferdinand accept my proposal, and I will, in the same treaty, ensure her independence, the integrity of her territories, and the preservation of her religion, under the new dynasty. This is the whole of my plan; for as to myself, *I require nothing of Spain; no, not even a hamlet.*' —

'*Escoiquiz.*—I cannot but express my astonishment at a scheme which, considering the intimate alliance of the two countries, could not even cross the thoughts of my King and nation. Spain, Sir, has now been the friend of France for one hundred years, and this friendship has become more intimate under your Majesty's government. Spain has supported France in all her wars, not excluding that which your Imperial Majesty has made for the dethronement of the Neapolitan branch of the Bourbons. In those wars, Spain has lost her navy and her treasures, until at last she is utterly exhausted.—I therefore entreat your Majesty to let me describe the true state of things in my country.—I shall begin by a simple and faithful narrative of the facts which preceded the abdication of King Charles IV.—I will take it from the very source; that is, the too well known conspiracy, as it is called, of the Escurial.'—

'*Emperor.*—I am perfectly aware of every circumstance. I know that neither the Prince nor any of you are to blame for what happened at that time. But this shocking business of Aranjuez—that act of abdication, performed in the middle of a furious mob; the desertion of the King's guards, who, instead of supporting him against the people, contributed with them to oppress him, and extort his renunciation; the eagerness of the Prince to accept it, and his conduct, as well as that of his friends, on the occasion; all this, I repeat, must induce the whole world, as it does me, to believe, that the abdication was involuntary and extorted.'

'*Escoiquiz.*—Let me then, I beseech your Majesty, set the events of Aranjuez in their true light.—The tumult of Aranjuez had no other cause but the public indignation, carried to its highest pitch, when it was found out that the King, and all the royal family, were going to set out for Andalusia; as the people suspected that it was preparatory to their departure for one of the colonies, in imitation of the Court of Portugal.—The hatred against the Prince of the Peace which had been for years working in every breast, burst into a violent explosion, the moment it was known that he was the author of that disastrous project. The only object, however, of the multitude was to punish the Favourite, and to prevent the flight of the King and royal family.—When the Prince of the Peace was found in a loft of his house, the day after the tumult, and the mob had fallen upon him, the guards, and some other troops, ran immediately to protect him, which they effectually did, until the Prince of Asturias repaired to the spot, and mixing in the mob, prevailed upon the people to spare him, under the promise of getting him legally tried. Thus the guards were enabled to convey him to their barracks, with a few slight wounds only. As soon as he was safe in the barracks, the tumult subsided, and the people having cheered the royal family, dispersed without delay.—I am aware, however, that in foreign courts and countries, it must have been said that delicacy, if not filial duty, demanded from Ferdinand a delay, or some degree of reluctance in the acceptance of an abdication which had been made in such extraordinary circumstances; but this objection can never occur to those who know how critical was the position of our affairs at that moment. Spain was utterly ruined, if Prince Ferdinand hesitated an instant. The Queen, who, in a state of the utmost anxiety for the life of the Prince of the Peace, had agreed to the abdication, might recover herself from her terror, and make her husband alter his resolution, as easily as she prevailed upon him to make his subsequent protest.—

'*Emperor.*—Under whatever colour the insurrection of Aranjuez and its consequences may be presented, you must acknowledge, Mons. l'Abbé, that appearances are against it. These are strongly supported by the protest of the King, made the very same day, and but a few hours after he signed the abdication.—

'*Escoiquiz.*—I confess, Sir, that to those who know not the incredible weakness of the King's character, the sudden change which his protest evinces (though I verily think it was made two days after the supposed date) will be a matter of astonishment. But their surprise would cease if they knew how much the King was the slave of his wife, in whom he had put the most unbounded confidence; and how she might get him, without the least difficulty, to sign the most opposite things in the same breath. It was the Queen, Sir, who out of hatred to the Prince her son, and for fear that the Prince of the Peace should be tried with all the rigour of the law, induced her husband to make the protest.'—

'*Emperor.*—In spite of all that, l'Abbé, I will always adhere to my principle. An abdication which was made in a tumult, and recalled the very same day, can never be deemed valid. But now, setting all this aside, how can I forget that both the interests of my family and empire, loudly demand the expulsion of the Bourbons from the throne of Spain? (Here his Imperial Majesty with the best possible humour, caught me by the ear, and pulling it in joke, said,) Suppose that all you have stated were so; still, l'Abbé, I would say, *bad policy!*

'*Escoiquiz.*—I perceive, Sir, the whole meaning of that word; but still, I imagine I could prove that good policy, and the interests of your empire, are quite against the plans which your Majesty has in contemplation.—I know how vast and deep are the plans which your Imperial Majesty is apt to conceive; but still, Sir, my perfect acquaintance with the character and dispositions of the Spanish nation, might enable me to make some observations, and state some facts, which may be of the greatest importance in your decision. Who knows but that I may succeed in bringing your Majesty to my side of the question?

'*Emperor.*—(Smiling, in the same good humour, and giving me rather a hard pull by the ear,) I have heard a good deal of you, l'Abbé, and I really see that you are a deep fellow.

'*Escoiquiz.*—(Smiling also.) Sir, allow me to say, that I am but a shallow creature, comparatively. I appeal to what the world has seen. No, Sir, no: the advantage is not on my side.

'*Emperor.*—It is impossible that while the Bourbons are on the throne of Spain, I should expect a sincere alliance from that country. They will, certainly, pretend it, while they may be weak and helpless; but they will fall upon me the moment a war shall be kindled in the North; a thing to which I am exposed every moment. Can there be a stronger proof of this, than the perfidious conduct of Charles IV.; who, as soon as he thought me quite embarrassed with the Prussian war, a few days before the battle of Jena, issued that famous proclamation, which you must well remember, calling all his subjects to arms against me? As long as the Bourbons shall sit upon that throne, I shall never be safe on that side. The forces of Spain, which are never to be overlooked, might dreadfully annoy me, one day or other, especially if there were a man of talents at their head.' —

' *Escoiquiz.* — With regard to the proclamation issued soon before the battle of Jena, which seems to be, with your Majesty, the strong ground of suspicion against the disposition of the Bourbons towards your person and family, though it was a most unprovoked offence, yet it never originated in a Bourbon. It was, as your Majesty well knows, an act of the Prince of the Peace, who had to conquer the most steady opposition of which the infinite weakness of the King was capable. — And what shall I say of the friendly dispositions shewn by his son Ferdinand, towards your Majesty: of that love, esteem, and veneration, of which you, Sir, have received the clearest proofs? — There can be no reason, Sir, to suspect the least aversion to your family, in a Prince, who besides giving these proofs of affection, knows very well that your Majesty's friendship is of the first political interest to his country.' —

' *Emperor.* — Come, come, l'Abbé, have done with your castles in the air, and answer me, if it be possible that Spain should be as faithful to me under a Bourbon, as under a Prince of my own family.

' *Escoiquiz.* — The best pledge of the alliance of Spain during your Majesty's life, is your transcendant genius, and the consequent strength which it gives to your empire. It matters not whether a Bourbon or a Prince of your family be upon the Spanish throne during your Majesty's life. — If your Majesty should insist upon the change of dynasty, I most humbly beg leave to say, that it will excite the hatred and jealousy of the most passive and neutral to an incredible degree. England, Sir, will have a powerful argument in your conduct towards your most faithful ally, with which to rouse their fears, and feed with them new wars and coalitions. As for the Spaniards, Sir, I cannot dissemble my persuasion, that they will swear eternal hatred against you. France and your family will be the objects of their execration for centuries. — There is but one opinion, one universal wish in favour of a King, whom they adore. Nothing, Sir, short of exterminating the Spaniards, can settle another King on their throne.

' *Emperor.* — L'Abbé, you exaggerate the difficulty. There is only one power which might give me some uneasiness, and I have already made sure of it. I communicated my plans concerning Spain to the Emperor of Russia, when I met him at Tilsit, (you see they are as old as that,) and he promised me not to oppose them. As for the other powers, they will not dare to stir, I am sure; and with regard to your Spaniards, they will make little or no resistance. The Grandees, of course, and all the people of property, will be kept quiet by the fear of losing it, and will most likely employ their credit with the lower classes to preserve tranquillity. I will make the clergy and the monks responsible for every sort of disturbance that may happen, and so they will be obliged to exert their great influence to preserve subordination. The populace may here and there break out into some commotion, but a few exemplary punishments shall bring them back to their duty. Believe me, that countries where the monks are numerous may easily be brought to subjection; I know it by my own experience.

'*Escoiquiz.* — Those Grandees, Sir, those men of fortune, those priests and monks, on whom you trust, will be the first to set the example of loyalty to Ferdinand, even at the expence of all they possess; and the whole nation, in a mass, will rise up to oppose the establishment of any other person on their throne.

'*Emperor.* — Well, let it be so; I will do it, if I were to sacrifice two hundred thousand men, though I am far from thinking that the subjugation of Spain will require that number.

'*Escoiquiz.* — I will allow, against my own persuasion, that Spain may submit, and even become reconciled to her yoke. But of what use, let me ask, will she then be to France? When she shall be ruined, unpeopled, impoverished by the loss of her colonies, and thereby deprived of the means of having a navy, what can she be but a burden to France, an opening through which her enemies will be enabled to attack her?

'*Emperor.* — But here again, l'Abbé, your argument runs away with you; you take it for certain that Spain will lose her colonies, when I have very good reasons to hope that it will not be so. I have not gone hand over head about this business. I am in communication with the Spanish colonies, and several frigates have been sent there for that pursose. No, no, I am pretty sure there.'

'*Escoiquiz.* — So strong is my persuasion that the colonies will withdraw their allegiance, in case of a change of dynasty, that I should not hesitate a moment to stake upon the event whatever is most dear to me in the world. — England, Sir, will greet the day in which the change of dynasty shall take place in Spain, and reckon it as the happiest that has ever beamed on her.'

'*Emperor.* — Besides, l'Abbé, that you are too much beforehand in your calculations, as we do not agree on the principles, I can say no more, at present, but that I will give this subject some further consideration, and let you know my irrevocable decision to-morrow. ——

'Such was, with very little difference, in the order of the words, the dialogue which took place in our first conference. The next day I was called again by the Emperor, who began the conversation by telling me, that he had taken the invariable determination of carrying his plan, concerning Spain, into execution; and desired me, at the same time, to break the matter to Ferdinand.' —

'That and the following days, the Emperor spoke upon the same subjects with the Dukes of Infantado and San Carlos, and with Don Pedro Ceballos the minister of the young King, severally, as well as in common, including me; but he always spoke in the same tone. They all urged similar arguments to those I had employed, every one taking a different view of the subject, and all using the same manly frankness; but it was all in vain: he had taken his resolution, and it was irrevocable, as he had told us.'

Next to the conference at Bayonne, the most interesting of these tracts is that which relates to the proceedings of Bonaparte in 1813 respecting the release of Ferdinand. The latter had been a long time in a state of detention; the French ruler had sacrificed army after army in his struggle for Spain, with no other result than the retention of a few fortresses in Catalonia; Lord Wellington was invading France from the South; and the allies were pouring in their hosts from Germany. Bonaparte now decided on taking that course which he ought to have adopted long before:

' Four years and a half had now elapsed, since the King and his royal relatives had, by Napoleon's tyranny, been deprived of all their Spanish attendants, and were surrounded by French servants of inferior rank; when on the 17th of November, 1813, the Count Laforest, under the assumed name of Mr. del Bosque, waited on the King, as the bearer of a letter from Napoleon, conceived in the following terms:

" My cousin,—The present circumstances of my empire have made me desirous of bringing the affairs of Spain to a close, at one stroke. England foments anarchy and jacobinism in that country, with the view of establishing a republic upon the ruins of the Spanish throne and nobility; and I cannot look with indifference on the destruction of a neighbouring nation, whose maritime interests are intimately connected with my own.

" It is, therefore, my desire to take away from England all pretexts of exerting her influence in Spain, and to renew the bonds of friendship and good neighbourhood which have so long subsisted between that country and France.

" I send Count Laforest to your Royal Highness, under a feigned name, and you may believe whatever he shall say. I wish you to be convinced of the sentiments of love and esteem which I bear to you.

" This letter having no other object, I pray God, my Cousin, to preserve your life.

" Your Cousin,

" *St. Cloud, November 12th,* 1813. NAPOLEON."

' His Majesty retired for some moments with the *Infantes*, to consider the contents of the letter, and upon their re-appearing, Count Laforest (who never gave the title of Majesty to the King by reason of the Emperor's not having yet acknowledged him) spoke to Ferdinand in these terms: " Sir, the Emperor, who for the purpose of secrecy has made me assume a feigned name, sends me to tell your Royal Highness, that although he exerted all his power at Bayonne, with a view to settle the family differences which prevailed among you, the English have destroyed every thing by means of the anarchy and jacobinism which they have introduced in your country. Her territory laid waste, her religion profaned, her clergy undone, her nobility humbled, her navy reduced to an empty name, her colonies dismembered and in open rebellion; such is the state of Spain at this moment. The English have no other view but to make Spain a republic; but the better to conceal their object, they screen themselves behind the name of your Royal Highness.—The Emperor, moved by the contemplation of these calamities, has sent me to make to your Royal Highness a faithful report of the state of your country, and begs that your Royal Highness may suggest the best means to conciliate the interest of both nations, and restore tranquillity to a kingdom, so deserving the consideration of Europe, and so worthy to possess in your person, a monarch of the highest dignity and character. — We must, however, be extremely careful to keep this negotiation a secret; for should the English come to some knowledge of it, they would do every thing in their power to oppose it.'

Ferdinand declined to give any answer at the time, and spoke of addressing himself for advice to the ministers composing the regency at Madrid. Escoiquiz compiled this part of his publication from a journal in the hand-writing of Ferdinand; and, like a true courtier, he lavishes (pp. 55. 59. 66.) the most extravagant encomiums on the prudence, judgment, and benevolence of his royal master. Such an eulogy has been so completely disproved by the subsequent conduct of the Spanish prince, that we decline to take any notice of his proceedings on this occasion, and shall merely mention that the result was a treaty of peace between him as king of Spain and the ruler of France, dated 8th December, 1813; a treaty founded on an understanding that Spain should be evacuated by the British as soon as Suchet had retired from Catalonia. Three months nearly elapsed in an unsuccessful application to the regency at Madrid, which refused to sanction the treaty: but Bonaparte felt the necessity of releasing Ferdinand without conditions, and dispatched passports to that effect in the beginning of March 1814. — The young king had not yet reached Madrid when he received a very submissive petition, signed (April 4.) by sixty-nine members of the Cortez. These persons spoke the sentiments of the clergy, the nobility, and a part of the military, in attempting to censure the proceedings of the constitutionalists or *Liberales*, and in calling for the re-establishment of the old form of government, with that delightful accompaniment, the Inquisition. Our readers will pardon us for not dwelling on this singular document, particularly since the composition is as dull and tedious as the sentiments are superstitious and illiberal.

Wherever an opportunity offers to trace Bonaparte's diplomatic conduct, we find it marked by that habit of falsehood and that predilection for a double plot, which De Pradt has lately exposed in his account of his negotiations in Poland.

A striking example of this fact is afforded by the letter of Izquierdo, the Spanish envoy at Paris, in the spring of 1808; whom Bonaparte chose to delude by an alternate excitement of hope and fear, flattering him at one time with the prospect of a final and satisfactory treaty, and threatening him at another with the consequences of delay or refusal.

Extract of a Letter from Izquierdo, dated Paris, 24th March, 1808.

'In our conferences, the marriage has been looked upon as a settled point. It will take place; the conditions, however, will be made out in a particular treaty; but no mention is to be made of it in the one, the bases of which I now forward.

'With respect to the title of Emperor, which the King our master is to take, there neither is nor ever was any difficulty. I have been told that there is not a moment to lose, in order to prevent the fatal consequences which even the delay of a day, in coming to an agreement, might produce.

'I have been warned to avoid every hostile step, every thing which might put off the salutary agreement, which is not yet too late for us to make.'

The same duplicity is apparent in the letter written by Bonaparte to Ferdinand from Bayonne, (16th April, 1808,) which is given in this tract, but which we do not extract because it was published at the time in our news-papers, and must be fresh in the recollection of many of our readers, from its charging Ferdinand with having no other title to the Spanish crown than "that which he derived from his mother."

One of the most elaborate parts of the writings of Escoiquiz in this collection is directed against a pamphlet published in Spain in 1814, expressing the sentiments of a person of little notoriety in our part of the world, Dr. Blaise Ostolaza. This reverend gentleman acted, it seems, as chaplain and sometimes as confessor to Ferdinand at Bayonne and Valençay; a circumstance which gave him confidence to address the public in a strain of vehement invective against several personages of rank. One of the most amusing of his charges is directed against Talleyrand, whom he calls a propagator of incredulity; while his wife, "no less anti-catholic than her husband, and with no more modesty than a rope-dancer, endeavoured to patch up marriages between the Spanish princes and the *damsels* of whom she had a medley in her company." Escoiquiz makes a very grave reply to these charges of his brother-confessor:

'Whether M. de Talleyrand has or has not any religious principles, is very irrelevant to my purpose; but there is not a single person in France who can say, that he is a propagator of impiety. If he was formerly a bishop, Pius VII. has secularized him, and no man has a right to bring into question either the power or the motives of the venerable pontiff.—With regard to the Princess his *wife*, her external behaviour, (which is the only rule we can have for judging in such cases,) shows all the modesty and decorum which becomes her high rank in society.

'The *damsels* whom they had in their company were five. A girl of from ten to eleven years of age, the natural daughter of the Prince, and the object of the care and tenderness of his wife as well as of the Prince himself: her governess, an English lady of about thirty, who had nothing remarkable about her but her modesty: a lady of honour or companion to the Princess, a German by birth, of from forty to fifty years of age, whom virtue, but certainly not beauty made amiable: and two young ladies, the daughters of a French emigrant of great distinction, whose support the Princess had undertaken, in consequence of the loss of their fortune, and whose education she besides superintended, with maternal care and affection.

'To know at once the character of these young ladies, it will be enough to say, that the handsomest of them took the veil among the *Sœurs de Charité* when she was one-and-twenty, with the consent and approbation of her protectress.'

Of the remaining papers here published, one consists of strictures by Don Pedro de Cevallos on the preceding statements of Escoiquiz, and is certainly not devoid of interest; but the remarks are too personal towards the father-confessor, and at the same time too local in their object to call for particular notice in an English work. The best passage (p. 145.) is that in which the author exposes Bonaparte's habitual artifice in granting peace on terms apparently advantageous to a defeated enemy, and seizing the first moment to interpret the conditions in his own favour.

The pamphlet is closed by the Petition already mentioned, of the sixty-nine members of the Cortez to Ferdinand; a document which must, in the original, have been of formidable length, since, after all the reductions of the translator, it still occupies forty pages. — The motives for printing these papers in Spain, and in the Spanish language, are sufficiently apparent: but the reason for translating them into English is not altogether so clear. If the translator has sent them to the British press merely as a private speculation, he could scarcely have taken a part less likely to acquire favour among us than that of attempting (preface, pp. 8, 9, 10.) to discredit the efforts of the patriots or *Liberales*, and inclining to the support of the old form of government, founded, as it was, on corruption and superstition. It seems, moreover, strange that papers of such importance should be given to the public without an index, or at least a table of contents to point out the succession of the documents. Even the arrangement of these papers, few as they are, is very defective; the proceedings in 1813 (p. 51.) being placed before those of 1808; (p. 83.) and the translator has not been careful to avoid the faults of haste and inattention; using such expressions as (introduction, p. 14.) '*shadow*' for *shade*;—(p. 98.) '*a bad policy*' for *bad policy*;—(p. 41.) 'an emissary near his Majesty,' instead of an emissary at his *Majesty's court* (*près de sa Majesté*,) &c. &c. The merit of the publication, therefore, is confined to the interest inherent in the matter; which is, we confess, greatly beyond that of the common run of political pamphlets, the documents being not a succession of opinions, but an authorized and official exhibition of facts.

Art. III. *Reports of the pestilential Disorder of Andalusia*, which appeared at Cadiz in the Years 1800, 1804, 1810, and 1813; with a detailed Account of that fatal Epidemic as it prevailed at Gibraltar, during the autumnal Months of 1804; also Observations on the remitting and intermitting Fever, made in the Military Hospitals at Colchester, after the Return of the Troops from the Expedition to Zealand in 1809. By Sir James Fellowes, M.D. Physician to the Forces, and late Inspector of Military Hospitals in the Peninsula, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 500. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

We have here a work of great interest and importance, as it respects the discussion of a curious question of medical theory that has been the subject of very warm controversy, but still more as it concerns the practice that is to be followed in the treatment of the fatal fever which prevailed so extensively in the south of Spain, and the means to be adopted for its prevention. Our medical readers must be aware that great differences of opinion have existed relative to the nature of the fever which committed such dreadful ravages in Cadiz and Gibraltar, at several periods, from the year 1800 to 1813. Whence the disease originated, whether it was produced by any thing peculiar in the state of the atmosphere or the condition of the people, or whether it was imported and propogated by contagion, are questions of the most vital importance, but which have remained undetermined. Equally undecided are the opinions of the most respectable physicians concerning the nature of the disease and the means to be employed for its removal: whether it is to be attacked by bleeding and purgatives, by mercury, or by tonics and stimulants, are all points about which the public mind is not fully informed, having evidence on both sides that appears worthy of credit.

These questions, also, respecting the Andalusian fever, are intimately connected with those that have been proposed as to the fevers of America and the West Indies. Are these diseases, which have proved so fatal in the different parts of the western hemisphere since the year 1793, identical with the epidemic of Andalusia? Do all those maladies, which have passed under the name of yellow fever, belong strictly to the same species? Are they all, as Dr. Bancroft has supposed, the effect of marsh miasmata, rendered more or less deleterious by a difference of temperature, or by the constitution and habits of the individuals whom they attack? Or are we to suppose that, at certain periods, new diseases, possessed of specific and distinctive characters, have originated, and been communicated by contagion, according to the opinion of Dr. Chisholm? It would be easy to extend this list of queries, and to indulge in almost endless speculations on these topics: but we must confine ourselves more immediately to the examination of Sir James Fellowes's publication.

It is arranged under five separate heads intitled Reports; and, in the form of an appendix, a number of documents serve to illustrate or confirm the statements delivered in the body of the work. The first report contains an account of the epidemic at Cadiz in the year 1800; with a topographical description of that town, the origin and progress of the disease, and its symptoms. The description of Cadiz is minute, and we presume correct. It seems to embrace every circumstance which can throw light on the nature of the diseases likely to prevail there, as well as on the actual state of the health of the inhabitants. The principal point, however, to which the attention is directed, respects the liability of the city to the causes of intermittent fever; and, from its situation and immediate vicinity, we can scarcely suppose the possibility of its being affected by marsh miasmata under any form. We are also expressly told that 'intermittent fevers are very uncommon' in Cadiz; and that the diseases most prevalent there are those which derive their origin from a crowded population, sedentary and luxurious habits of life, and all those evils which are necessarily consequent on the state of society in large cities devoted to commercial pursuits. In short, we think that Sir J. Fellowes has been completely successful in shewing the improbability, or almost impossibility, of Cadiz being extensively affected by marsh miasmata.

Sir James prefaces his account of the origin and progress of the fever in 1800 by a history of the different epidemics that have, at various times, prevailed in Cadiz, of which any accurate records are in existence. The first was in the year 1466, when the mortality was said to be so great as to have nearly depopulated the city; other fatal epidemics appeared in 1507, 1582, 1649, and 1730; and the last, called "the black vomit," is stated to have committed dreadful ravages. Respecting their nature, we have little certainty; some of them were denominated the plague, but the term was probably used without much precision. In the spring of the year 1800, the weather was unusually severe, and the summer was hot and oppressive: but the health of the inhabitants was not affected until the month of August, when a fever made its appearance in a district of the city, 'which soon attracted the notice of practitioners, from the violence and singularity of its symptoms, and from the uncommon rapidity with which its course was terminated.' The disease gradually extended to other quarters of the town, and the alarm became very general. The idea of contagion naturally occurred, but the great majority of the practitioners rejected this opinion, and ascribed it to a variety of other causes, which unhappily led to nothing precise in the way of practice or of prevention. We are not able to follow the author through the melancholy detail of the events which ensued; — melancholy from the dreadful mortality which took place, and still more when we reflect that the greatest part of the evil might have been prevented by an accurate knowlege of the nature of the disease.

> 'Cadiz was now become a desolate and melancholy place, and by the middle of the month of September, the deaths amounted daily to 200; at this period, the air from its stagnant state, became so vitiated, that its noxious qualities affected even animals; canary-birds died with the blood issuing from their bills, and in all the neighbouring towns which were afterwards infected, no sparrow ever appeared during the epidemic. In fact, the disorder became general; whole families at once under its influence, remained without comfort or assistance; the hospitals were filled, and no one could be found to attend upon the sick; the apothecaries' shops were shut; the greater part of the practitioners in the town were themselves taken ill, and many of them were victims of this terrible scourge.'

The symptoms of the disease are next detailed. As far as we can judge from internal evidence, this part of the work is very excellent; the description is clear and precise; and the leading features of the disease are laid down in so characteristic a manner, as we trust will enable practitioners in future to recognize them without difficulty, if called to witness a similar malady. The most striking symptoms, when it appeared in its most regular and acute form, were violent pain of the head, especially over the eyes, and also in the loins, yellowish colour of the skin, dejected countenance, great and sudden debility, and generally vomiting and diarrhœa, with a bilious appearance of all the excretions. A remission of the symptoms usually took place in 24 hours; succeeded, on the following day, by an exacerbation of the morbid appearances, and the rapid advance of dissolution. The black vomit was regarded among the most fatal signs, though not invariably so; when it came on about the third or fourth day, it carried off great numbers of the sick; and, in general, the earlier it appeared the more dangerous was it considered. Various circumstances are related which indicate an altered state of blood, and either a dissolution or complete relaxation of the capillary vessels. The nervous system, although much disordered, was perhaps not so greatly affected as it might have been suspected to be from the derangement of the sanguiferous system. The following observation of the Spanish Professor Arejula is of the first importance, and appears to be fully confirmed by subsequent experience:

> ' " The yellow fever of Andalusia only attacks persons once in their lives, and it is of great importance for the physician to know this, in order to form his prognostic and his plan of cure, as well as for the individual who may have passed through the disorder, that both of them being assured of this fact, may step forward without fear to the relief of their fellow-creatures who may hereafter be afflicted with so dreadful a malady."—P. 191.'

On examining after death the bodies of those who had suffered from the vomiting and purging of black matter, the stomach and bowels exhibited gangrenous spots of different sizes; while the same gangrenous state, or a tendency to it, was found in the lungs and about some of the large vessels. Black matter was also discovered lining the mouth and fauces, and under the skin; and even portions of the brain were said to be livid.

The second report is relative to the fever which occurred at Gibraltar in the year 1804. It commences with a description of the place; next giving an account of the origin and progress of the fever; then a history of the disease; afterward some remarks on the fever which occurred about the same time in Malaga; and lastly general observations on the nature of the complaint, and on the treatment adopted by the Spanish practitioners. The topograghical account of Gibraltar appears to be in every respect complete. In some parts of the town, the inhabitants were very much crowded together; and the nature of their houses, as well as their mode of life, was such as to predispose them to disease, and tend to its propagation after it had appeared among them:

> ' But,' the author observes, ' as the same causes had existed in Gibraltar for some time previously, and also in the year 1800, when the fever first broke out in Cadiz, and in Malaga in 1803, without occasioning the slightest change in the health of the garrison during that and the three succeeding years, the origin of the epidemic could not be attributed to them; it is therefore curious as well as

important to endeavour to trace it, and to enquire into all the facts which have been assigned for its production.'

As to the existence of marsh-miasmata, the situation of the place seems entirely to remove all suspicion of their having had any share in the production of the calamity. Nothing in the state of the atmosphere could be regarded as an adequate cause of so great an effect; nor had any particular event occurred which could be supposed likely to operate unfavourably on the health of the garrison.

In the year 1803, a very destructive fever broke out in Malaga, returned there in 1804, and about the same period made its appearance at Cadiz. At this time, an individual arrived from that city, under suspicious circumstances; and, as the result of a very minute investigation, it seems probable that he introduced the fever into Gibraltar.

'The facts that were afterwards ascertained respecting the arrival of Santos from Cadiz, and his being the person who introduced the infection into the garrison, are upon record, and they carry a strong conviction of the probable mode in which he had contracted the disease; indeed from his own confession, and the oath of a respectable witness, it appeared that he had left an infected house at Cadiz, that he had been three times in company with a person actually labouring under disease, about the 23d or 24th of August, that he arrived at Gibraltar the 25th, was taken ill on the 26th, and was seen by the French practitioner, Monsieur Jay, on the 27th of August, and that in less than eight days after his being attacked, his mother, two aunts, one brother, and two sisters all residing in the house, were also seized with a disorder of a similar nature, and of which no case was known to have occurred in the garrison previous to young Santos being taken ill. The proofs therefore that young Santos was the first person attacked with the disease, and that he had been the means of introducing it into the garrison, appear to be as strong and conclusive as the circumstances of the case could possibly admit of, especially when it is considered how the malady spread from the house of Santos to the adjoining buildings, whilst the rest of the garrison were totally exempt from it.'

At the moment, however, little attention was paid to these considerations; the idea of contagion was not admitted by those practitioners in whose judgment most confidence was placed; and, which is but too common on such occasions, the means of prevention that were adopted were feeble, wavering, and in course completely inefficient. The scene of distress which followed is described, we fear, with too much fidelity.

'By the first week in October, the number of deaths in the town of Gibraltar amounted to 167, and on the 4th day of the month to 175. From this period the greatest confusion prevailed, and it is not possible to give an adequate description of the consternation and distress which followed. Few persons except the military were to be seen in the streets. Such members of the Committee of Health, as had hitherto escaped an attack of the disorder, continued to discharge their duty, in directing measures of police, in making arrangements for the daily supply of the markets, and in affording relief to the helpless sick. Carts were stationed at the door of the Spanish church to receive the dead bodies that were brought there at all hours of the day, from different parts of the town, to be conveyed to the neutral ground. Those unhappy persons who could not carry the bodies of their friends to the station appointed, left them exposed on the outside of their doors, and as the carts drove past the drivers were forced to take them up and bury them in the pits which were dug every morning by parties of soldiers.

'The men, who were hired to conduct these carts died so fast and were so frequently replaced that at last it was difficult to find persons willing to undertake this dangerous office for any reward, and it became necessary to employ soldiers from the several corps to perform the greatest part of this unpleasant and hazardous service. Such however was the dread which it inspired, that the Rev. Mr. Hughes, the respectable chaplain of the garrison, assured me, that on one occasion when the alarm and confusion were at their height, he had seen with horror sixteen bodies lying upon the burial ground without a grave being dug, or any person to assist him; the party allotted for this duty having made their escape.'

A principal object of this part of Sir James Fellowes's work is to prove that the disease was contagious, by shewing how the infection was originally conveyed, and by tracing its progress from individual to individual, according to proximity of residence or of employment, until the whole population was become, as it were, saturated with the poison. Allowing for the confusion which prevailed at the time, the number of deaths which occurred among those persons whose testimony was the most material, and other obstacles of a similar nature, we think that the facts are made out with sufficient clearness; and we confess that they leave little or no doubt on our minds. It is, however, impossible for us to enter on this detail.—The same remarks apply to the fever of Malaga; and the evidence of contagion being introduced there, and of the fever having afterward spread from person to person and from house to house, in a manner which could only have occurred with respect to a disease propagated by contagion, seems to be substantiated, as far as the nature of the case admits of proof.—The observations on the nature of the epidemic which prevailed in different parts of Andalusia in 1804 generally coincide with those which were made in 1800; and the following remark confirms the important fact to which we have already alluded:

'No instance occurred of any person who had passed through the disorder in 1800, having been attacked in 1804. The same remark was made of those who had been ill with it in South America, as well as of the natives of that country who had resided there many years, without ever having had the fever or any disease like it.'

The pain across the forehead and in the loins, the remission at the end of 24 hours, the subsequent aggravation of the disease, the discharge of black matter from the stomach and bowels, and the appearance of a dissolved state of the blood, form the most prominent features.

In the third and fourth reports, we have an account of the epidemics at Cadiz in the years 1810 and 1813 respectively. They are in a great measure a repetition of the same events that have been related in the former part of the work, and are on this account less interesting: but they are very important, as tending amply to confirm the opinions maintained above respecting the contagious nature of the disease, and its power of attacking the same individual once only during life. Partly in consequence of this circumstance, and partly from the more judicious means of prevention that were adopted, the disease was much less extensive and fatal than in 1800, though sufficiently of this character to excite great alarm and distress.

The fifth report consists of 'observations on the bilious and autumnal remitting and intermitting fever (called the Walcheren fever) with remarks on the treatment of the disease, as it appeared in the military hospitals at Colchester in the months of September, October, November, and December, 1809.' The observations on this disease are the more important as contrasted with the author's experience of the Andalusian fever; and we conceive that no doubt can remain respecting the nature of their relation to each other, but that they are radically different diseases, originating from a different cause, exhibiting different symptoms, and affecting the constitution in a different manner.—The body of the work concludes with the author's opinions respecting the nature of the disease in general, and more especially of the epidemic which ravaged the south of Spain. We learn that acid-fumigations were entirely ineffectual in suppressing the contagion of this disease; a fact which appears to have been fully ascertained after the most complete trial.—The resemblance between the fever of Spain and the typhus of this country, as to the mode of propagation and the means by which the virulence of the contagion is increased or diminished, passes under the author's consideration; and several points of dissimilarity are noticed, which lead to the conclusion that the two diseases depend on a different contagion, and exist under dissimilar circumstances. A certain range of temperature, such as very rarely occurs in this island, is supposed to be essential to the existence of the Andalusian fever, and sufficiently distinguishes it from our typhus; while

'The violence and fatality of this fever, the indistinctness in the remissions, the rapidity of its course, and the peculiar debility which often came on very early, accompanied by a constant propensity to vomit, constituted the striking difference from the bilious remittent, common to that country during the autumnal months. This peculiarity was never more observable than in the last epidemic of 1813, at Cadiz; whilst it prevailed there, the inhabitants at the Isla de Leon, and several of our soldiers quartered at that station, were attacked with the common symptoms of bilious fever, but without shewing any of those so strongly indicative of the pestilential character.'

As to its causes, the author's opinion is decided 'that human contagion having acquired a certain virulence, from a combination of peculiar circumstances, joined to the epidemic tendency of the bilious remittent of the country, gave rise to the pestilential disorder in Spain.' We are more inclined to hesitate in admitting the following position: 'It is possible that persons coming from Vera Cruz or the Havannah, and carrying with them the seeds of disease, admitted to be endemic in those places, might, during their passage in a crowded ship, undergo such a change of constitution as to produce the disorder, with the additional property of generating it in others highly pre-disposed.' The manner in which the contagion acts on the system is thus attempted to be explained:

'From all the observations that I had an opportunity of making in this disorder, and from which any practical inferences could be drawn, it appeared to me, that on the application of the poison to the stomach, which I apprehend to be the organ most directly affected, a morbid change took place in the gastric and other juices, which by their particular stimulus on the nerves of the stomach and bowels, occasioned many of the febrile phænomena, and that the bile was the fluid principally acted upon. A consequent derangement in the ordinary secretion of the liver generally succeeded to a considerable extent, and thus the irritability of the system becoming increased, tended to keep up the fever.'

The principle of contagion being established, we have in our hands the means of prevention; and this is the more important, because, when the disease has once taken possession of the constitution, the powers of medicine seem to be of little avail. All very active practice is considered as dangerous; and the only plan that is certainly useful is the free discharge of the contents of the bowels, effected in the most gentle manner, and with the least possible irritation. All considerable evacuations of every kind are to be avoided; and it does not appear that any plan of treatment can at all times be trusted, but must be employed with the greatest caution and discrimination.

ART. IV. *An Inquiry into the Causes of the general Poverty and Dependence of Mankind;* including a full Investigation of the Corn-Laws. By William Dawson. 8vo. pp. 338. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE title of this work seems to have been chosen as a counterpart to that of Dr. Smith's celebrated treatise on the "Wealth of Nations;" and to this we should have no great objection, were the title-page more expressive of the object and contents of the book: but, as the reader can draw from it no satisfactory conclusion in these respects, we shall begin by mentioning that Mr. D.'s publication may be described as consisting of a series of remarks on the following topics; viz. 1. Condition of Mankind in the primitive or shepherd-state. 2. Change produced by Land becoming private Property. 3. Effects of Manufactures on the Comforts of the People (this is treated at considerable length). 4. Effects of Commerce on public Comfort (treated briefly). 5. On the Corn-Laws; Arguments against the Principles of Mr. Malthus, and of the landed Interest. 6. Of Taxes, Drawbacks, and Bounties.

We have no disposition to follow Mr. D. into an examination of that state of society which the poets had the kindness to dignify by the name of the golden age: but, leaving them in quiet possession of their treasures, we proceed to give our readers an idea of the present performance, by extracting a few passages from the chapter relative to manufactures. After having observed how many obstacles oppose the developement of industry in a thinly peopled country, inhabited chiefly by agriculturists, the author adds:

> 'But when tradesmen resort to towns, in which they chuse their own magistrates, and find that their persons and property are secure, industrious individuals of talents and enterprise will not only exert themselves to increase the quantity of their work, for their own use, but they will exert themselves to contrive tools and machines, by which they will be enabled to execute three or four times more work than they could execute without such assistance. And as the neighbours of these ingenious men, and the rising generation, will learn these arts, the number of individuals of that description will gradually increase in the different trades.—
>
> 'But the increase of manufactures, by the division of labour, and by the use of tools and machines for assisting the powers of man,

man, though very great, is trifling, when compared to the increase produced by machines for applying to these purposes the powers of the elements. Various machines, by the force of water, of air, and of steam, guided by a few hands, execute as much work as hundreds of men could do without such assistance; and, consequently, the incomes and exchanges among manfacturers, must increase rapidly with the increase of stock employed in machinery, worked by the elements.'—

'Machines for saving labour appear, at first view, to diminish the demand for labourers; but as the value of the labour which is saved is an addition to the income of the owner, and as that additional income, if not bestowed on the maintenance of useless animals, must be given for labour in some other way, either in augmenting these works, or in articles of convenience or luxury produced by labour, an additional demand for labourers is by these means formed in the lines in which the revenue derived from the machines is expended. And as that revenue is great in proportion to the number of people deprived of employment by the machines, that additional revenue will give employment to an equal number of additional labourers in the lines in which the owners chuse to lay it out.

'When machines are erected for spinning, for instance, the demand for spinners, is, no doubt, lessened, but the demand is in an equal degree augmented for people to erect, repair, and guide these machines, and to supply the owners with the articles upon which they chuse to bestow their additional profits.'—

'The quantity of manufactures and other conveniencies, which a labourer can purchase with what remains of his wages, after paying for food, must increase with the increase of machinery, of stock, of the arts of manufacturing, and with the cheapness of the materials of manufactures.'—

'A labourer can get his corn ground at a mill for about one day's wages for every quarter; whereas he could not grind the same quantity himself in eight or ten days: hence it is evident, that, in this case, the labourer, by giving one day's wages to the owner of the mill, saves at least eight days' wages, and has his corn much better done. The profits derived from employing stock to save labour are payments for the labour which it saves, and are so far from lessening the wages of labourers, that it has been shown that wages are necessarily higher in every country in proportion as more stock is employed.'

We next extract a few passages from the section which treats of a very important topic, the causes of national improvement.

'Necessity is said to be the mother of invention, and the most powerful cause of exertion. But such exertions can only be expected to be made while the cause continues to operate. To remove the pain which is the consequence of a great degree of hunger or thirst, of cold or heat, every person will exert himself to the utmost. But after the pain, occasioned by these causes, is removed, very few savages make any considerable exertion to prevent a return.—

'And even in such civilized agricultural societies as Poland, &c. the principal ambition of the owners of land is to domineer over their dependents and neighbours; and the sole view of those who have no land is to please their superiors, by the most abject cringing behaviour. So that few durable improvements can be expected in such societies. But in a country where manufactures are established, and property secure, the ambition of men of talents in every line has an opportunity of exerting itself, to excel their neighbours in dress, houses, furniture, and in the arts and sciences, &c.; and the people of a different description are obliged to exert themselves to appear in some degree like those who have excelled. By which means, there is a cause of general improvement, constantly operating, in every manufacturing society in which the persons and property of individuals are secure. A tradesman, in a very retired situation, may go on for years in his usual aukward manner of working, without attempting to adopt better methods; but if brought to work in a town, where better methods are in general use, he will exert himself to be equal with his neighbours. Hence, the great advantage of establishing free towns for improving the manufacturing arts, and of prizes to those who excel in any art or science.'—

'It is admitted that, when the price of food falls suddenly below the usual rate, idle individuals work less, having no wish for better clothes or conveniencies than those to which they have been accustomed; and employers of labourers on that account say, that cheapness of food produces idleness. But they do not reflect, that, when cheapness of food and high wages continue steadily for years in a manufacturing country, the whole class of labourers become accustomed to better clothes, houses, and other conveniencies; and then even the idle are obliged to exert themselves to appear like their neighbours. It is only custom and the fear of ridicule that, in every situation, stimulate such persons to industry. Dr. Smith says, justly, that industry, like every other quality of the human mind, increases with the increase of its reward; consequently, cheapness of food cannot be a cause of idleness in a manufacturing country; and the labourers accordingly are, in every country, industrious, in general in proportion as labour is well or ill rewarded. They are much more industrious in the north than in the south of Ireland; in England and in the south of Scotland, than in the Highlands and Islands of Scotland; in Holland, than in Russia or Poland.'

We perfectly agree with Mr. Dawson in the opinion that an extravagant mode of living is as little conducive to the advantage of the public as of the individuals who adopt it; and it would seem scarcely necessary to dwell on so clear a topic, had it not been fashionable of late years, with a certain class of reasoners, at the head of whom was the late Mr. Spence, to consider all wealth as arising from the expenditure of the land-holders, and to regard any thing that these gentlemen allowed to slip out of their hands as an act of kindness to the community:

'When gentlemen live on their estates, every person sees that they give employment to several labourers, but they seldom reflect that the part of the income which is given to these labourers would, in a manufacturing society, support an equal number in some other line, if the gentlemen were living in a town. The food which is given to horses and dogs, which a gentleman must keep in the country for his amusement, and to the horses necessary for visiting, for making ponds, levelling heights, and raising mounds in pleasure-grounds, — and the food which might have been raised upon these grounds, would have supported, in many instances, two or three hundred families. For these reasons, it seems necessary that there should be very high taxes upon horses and dogs kept for pleasure in all populous countries.

'An extravagant mode of living among the rich occasions a great waste of food and other necessaries; and encourages idleness, not only in their own class, but also among the poor, several of whom, by begging, obtain a part of the offals. Whereas, a saving, orderly mode of living among the rich encourages industry and sobriety, not only in their own but in all the inferior classes; and, by preventing waste, the consumption of food is less, which must serve all the industrious of the lower ranks, and can only be injurious to idle beggars.'

In discussing the effects of manufactures on agriculture, Mr. D. observes;

'In every country, where the general rate of wages is low, the profits of employers of stock, to save labour, are also low; and they are high where wages are high. In the south of Ireland, the Highlands, and the Islands of Scotland; in Poland, and in every other country, where the general rate of wages is low, the general rate of the profits of master-tradesmen and other employers of stock is also low. Whereas in Glasgow, Manchester, Birmingham, and other manufacturing towns, where the general rate of wages is high, the general rate of the profits of the employers of stock is also high.'

Though we have no objection to the assertion that the profits of manufacturers and traders in the last-mentioned towns are large, while those of their humble brethren in Poland, in the south of Ireland, and in the north of Scotland, are very moderate, we contend that the difference is owing not to the per-centage earned on capital being greater in the one than the other, but to the very material difference in the extent of capital employed; 20,000l. being just as common a stock for a man in business in the one as 2,000l. in the other. Admitting, therefore, which we believe to be the case, that a trader in the great town obtains a smaller per-centage, perhaps only one half of that of his remote competitor, the result is still wonderfully in his favour from the superior extent of funds employed and business transacted.

We proceed to the section treating of the effects of foreign commerce on the welfare of a community:

> 'In former ages, when the proprietors in Europe acted as sovereigns upon their estates, when their security and consequence depended upon the number of men they could command, it was their interest to give their spare produce to people who could serve them in a military capacity; and as that service could only be executed by men living upon the estate, who could be ready at a call upon every occasion, almost the whole spare produce of the proprietors was then given to the people who lived upon their estates.
>
> 'But since proprietors have been compelled to give up contending with one another for superiority in power, they have contended for superiority in fine manufactures, and in the productions of the fine arts. The natural consequence of this competition has been, that when the labourers who resided upon estates could not supply the proprietors with such articles as they desired, their spare produce has been sent to labourers of other districts or countries who could supply them.'—
>
> 'The labourers of England, for instance, furnish the proprietors of land and other people in Poland, Ireland, the Highlands of Scotland, and many other countries, with great variety of manufactures.—The affluence of the people who have no land in England is a consequence of their knowledge in arts and manufactures; and their accumulation of capital and machinery, which they have gradually acquired by living in free towns where their persons and property are secure, and the poverty of the people who have no land in Poland and Ireland, &c. is a consequence of their want of these advantages.'

The remainder of this chapter is not equally unexceptionable. We are disposed to lay greater stress on the benefits arising from foreign intercourse than Mr. D. (p. 95.) seems willing to allow; and we can hardly reconcile to the soundness of his views, in other respects, the doctrine (pp. 98. 100.) that it is advisable to give an extra encouragement to our intercourse with under-peopled countries. It had, we thought, been admitted by all political economists, that the true rule for foreign trade, as for every thing else, is to leave it to its own unrestricted operation.—On the other hand, we have no difficulty in assenting to Mr. D.'s opinion (p. 76.) that the establishment of manufactures is more beneficial to the poor than any division of land or stock, on the plan of those visionaries who talked and acted so mischievously in the zenith of the French Revolution.

'As some humane persons have thought, that in justice, land and stock should be equally divided, it seems proper here to observe, that the establishing of manufactures in free towns, and removing obstructions to cultivation, though the land be in a considerable degree unequally divided, appears to be much more beneficial to labourers, than any attempt at an equal division of property, which must exclude manufactures and all ambition to excel in dress, &c. —

'But in a country where manufactures are established, the desire for fine kinds and greater variety induces the owners of considerable quantities of land to exert themselves to cultivate every part of it in the best manner, to increase their spare produce to purchase them; and in proportion as food becomes scarce and dear, the motives for increasing the quantity become stronger. On the other hand, those who have no land, and the children of those who have too little, by applying to manufactures, obtain good wages, and by degrees accumulate stock, from which they derive profit, with which they purchase food and other necessary productions of land, from those who have them to spare.'

The following passage treats of the bad effects of a practice unfortunately too common both in our country and America; we mean, doing business adventurously on credit, and living at a rate which may, without much harshness, be called living at the expence of our creditors:

'As every person in trade puts a higher price upon his goods, in proportion to the risk from bad debts, that additional price is a tax upon the consumers; and as that tax must be higher, in proportion to the number of hands through which the articles go in their passage from the producer to the consumer, it must follow, that the consumers pay a tax upon every article of food and manufactures, upon very few below five, and upon many above twenty per cent.: to make up to dealers the losses they sustain by bankrupts.

'But bankrupts not only injure society, by occasioning these very heavy taxes, their expensive mode of living is also ruinous to many of their neighbours, particularly to young beginners in trade, by leading them to suppose it necessary, that people in particular businesses should live in a certain line, whether their income can afford it or not; whereas it must be admitted, that a person is not acting honestly, who buys goods or borrows money, which he is not morally certain of being able to pay; and there is no difference in the turpitude of the acts of deceiving a neighbour, by a person giving him his own bill, when conscious of being in a bankrupt state, than there is in deceiving him with a forged bill. Nor is it honest to risk another person's goods or money in any uncertain speculation. For, as the schemer is to have the whole profit, he ought to be in ability to pay all the losses, unless he previously state the extent of the risk. Yet the forger is punished with death, while the bankrupt is not liable to any punishment. Upon this gross partiality of the law, Jonathan Wild observed, that borrowing is a much safer way of taking our neighbour's goods, than stealing.'—

'Hence it appears, that improper lenity to bankrupts, by increasing their number, must not only increase the tax for bad debts, but, by encouraging an expensive mode of living, must check the accumulation of capital, which must check the increase of food and manufactures; thus sacrificing the riches and power of the society, with the peace and comfort of the simple, the honest, and the industrious, to gratify the passions of the extravagant, the deceitful, and the villainous.'

The subject of the corn-laws has been so fully treated in late publications, as to render it unnecessary for us to take any farther notice of the portion of the present work which is devoted to that topic, than merely to mention that Mr. D. is adverse to the principles of the landed interest, and to the system of Mr. Malthus, which he combats (p. 180. et seq.) at great length. We see equally little occasion for analyzing his chapter on taxes, drawbacks, and bounties. The volume is concluded by a chapter appropriated to a summary of the substance of the preceding arguments; and expressing (p. 250.) the writer's opinion of the practicability of increasing our population, our wealth, and our revenue, in terms which to many will appear too confident, but to which we might perhaps subscribe on the supposition that we shall be fortunate enough to enjoy for a number of years the blessings of peace. We cannot bestow a corresponding compliment on Mr. D.'s performance in point of style; nor must our readers consider themselves as authorized to judge of the book at large from the extracts which we have made. In fixing on these quotations, we not only avoided the dry and abstract part of the reasoning, but we left out all the intervening sentences and paragraphs which the author may deem highly essential to the chain of argument, but which, as far as our opinion goes, are superfluous and cumbersome. When, indeed, it may be asked, can the public hope to have a writer on political economy who is capable of uniting vigour with animation and judgment with vivacity? The French seem at present to possess in M. Say an author of this description, but among ourselves we see no appearance of the kind, numerous as are the candidates for reputation in this difficult department of science.

The volume is closed by an appendix, containing a copy of the very elaborate report made by a Committee of the Privy Council on the corn-laws in 1790; followed by the brief performance of the parliamentary Committee on the same subject in 1804, with the act of parliament passed in that year, which continued to be the regulator of our corn-trade until the new act formed in the last spring.

Art. V. *Memoirs of George Frederick Cooke*, Esq., late of the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden, by William Dunlap, Esq. Composed principally from the personal Knowledge of the Author, and from Manuscript-Journals left by Mr. Cooke, &c. &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Colburn.

Dramatic biography is a species of composition which has usually been received with favour by the English public; and it will not, on consideration, be deemed paradoxical that our countrymen, though undoubtedly less eager for theatrical amusement than most of the polished nations of the continent, prove inquisitive respecting the lives of those who are connected with the stage. The simple fact is that we are fond of biography generally, and are therefore inclined to welcome with pleasure those branches of it which, from the subjects recorded, are most fruitful of anecdote, and capable of developing a greater portion of characters, besides the immediate subject of the memoir. This is peculiarly the case with the professors of dramatic representation. The politician has lived in such full view of the public eye, that, when he dies, the narrative of his life produces rather a series of reminiscences in our minds, than new and entertaining impressions. The life of the scholar and the poet has generally been passed in seclusion, if not in obscurity; and, though the progress of his mind in the paths of taste or science may be a subject of curious investigation to the philosophical reader, it can seldom furnish much of that enlivening detail which is more especially adapted to captivate the minds of the multitude. With respect to the actor, the fact is altogether the reverse: it is true that he has lived before some portion of the public, but before only a small part of the metropolitan population: still he can never have passed his time in seclusion; and he consequently possesses, in a particular degree, those qualifications which constitute an eligible subject for biographical memoir.

Literary criticism necessarily forms a conspicuous feature in the lives of those who are distinguished in any of the branches of human learning, but in most cases it can only represent the individual opinions of the biographer on the subject under remark. Criticism on dramatic representation is exercised in a much wider circle. Instead of attending only to the opinions of an individual, we are referred to the prevailing tone of sentiment during a certain period of time; and we are enabled to mark the variable features of public taste, to rise with it in its growth, or to follow it in its decline. Few works are written in a more desultory and negligent style than Davies's Dramatic Miscellanies: yet the very carelessness of the narrator introduces us, with little effort of the imagination, to the scenes which he describes; we become present at the amusements of our fathers; and, as the best time to catch the manners of a people is during the season of their recreations, we form a clearer idea of their prevailing notions than we could deduce from laborious criticisms on works produced in the era in which they lived. It is therefore to be regretted that less talent has been exercised in dramatic biography than in any other. Authors have felt that their subject will prove entertaining, with the aid of very little exertion on their part; and indolence in the execution is the never-failing result of mis-placed encouragement: or the task itself falls into disrepute, and is committed to inferior agents, who are contented, without analyzing the expressions of public taste and feeling, simply to record them in dull detail from the ephemeral productions of past days.

The several lives of Garrick, Kirkman's "Life of Macklin," and "The History of the Stage," are undoubtedly in the first class of these productions. Tate Wilkinson's Memoirs, and his "Wandering Patentee," may be placed in a second, as productions capable only of affording a lower and more vulgar species of amusement. Where Mr. Dunlap's Life of Cooke is to be stationed, our readers will presently have an opportunity of judging. *In limine*, however, we beg to assure Mr. D. that, whatever our opinion may be of his work, we *have read it*; and, although by this confession we forfeit our character as 'genuine Reviewers,' according to his account of them, (vol. i. p. 57.) we beg to assert the fact in justification of any remarks that we may make.

As a composition, these memoirs of Cooke rank very low indeed in point of style: the language and the construction of sentences throughout being inelegant, and often slovenly in the extreme. These objections exclude it from pretending to much consequence as a biographical production: but, if examined simply as a work of entertainment, (and very possibly the author himself did not cherish more ambitious expectations,) it will not be found by any means so deficient. Much of the amusement, which such volumes can afford, must depend on the credit which the reader attaches to the statements contained in them: if these be of dubious authenticity, he feels that any book of unappropriated anecdotes would be equally pleasing and instructive: but if, on the contrary, he believes that such adventures did really happen to a person about whom he feels some interest, the anecdotes themselves acquire an additional importance and effect from their association.—The sources from which the present memoirs are drawn, though by no means very copious, are not liable to any impeachment, that we can perceive, on the score of genuineness. Cooke himself was in the habit of keeping a desultory kind of diary, (with frequent interruptions,) in which he recorded his professional wanderings, the characters that he performed, the resolutions that he made, with the consequent infractions of the same, and — smile not, reader, — his *studies.* The latter never exceeded the contents of some circulating library, at his various quarters: but he generally seems to have picked out the best books which such places in country-towns were likely to supply; and not unfrequently he diversifies the monotony of his diary by some sensible, though not very deep, remarks on their contents. These journals appear to be Mr. Dunlap's sheet-anchors. In his title-page, he mentions his personal knowlege of the actor as another means of information: to what extent this may have existed, we know not, but we observe few or no traces of it during the earlier part of the memoirs, where it would have been highly useful in clearing up satisfactorily the obscurity which hangs over Mr. Cooke's occupations during many insulated periods of his life. All other facts seem to have been derived from such sources as would be open to any person who was executing a similar project; viz. old play-bills, old news-papers, or magazines, and partial communications from some cotemporary heroes of the buskin.

Of the general credibility of the narrative thus founded, we see no reason, as we have already observed, to be doubtful; and, if the main facts be true, it is not very important whether one or two absurd scenes displayed as occurring during seasons of intoxication are exaggerated or misplaced. The scantiness of the materials offers a much stronger ground of complaint; Mr. Cooke's own diary being frequently of the most jejune nature, and sometimes recording little more than the hours at which he rose or retired to rest. It certainly does appear rather extraordinary that Mr. Cooke, whose convivial and social propensities after dinner (to call them by the mildest name) were always his bane, and ultimately his ruin, did not on such occasions give a cue to many more than one friend respecting his general mental habits; or that, at the least, some of the better part of his conversation should never have been preserved in the memory of any of his table-companions, which might have enriched by communication the work of his biographer. Mr. Cooke was naturally fond of being alone during the earlier part of the day, as his long solitary rambles over the country, whenever a residence there gave him an opportunity, abundantly testify: but this predilection for solitude could not, as it frequently is, have been accompanied in him by any great general reserve; the character of the man setting such a supposition at defiance; and we might, therefore, have reasonably expected something to relieve the dryness of his journal, from his unrestrained conversation in his hours of conviviality.

As it is our intention presently, when we enter more closely into Mr. Cooke's career, to confine ourselves as much as we can to his dramatic progress, without recording the degrading scenes of drunkenness which clouded his intellects, overwhelmed his better purposes, and in fact converted the whole of his life into a tissue of disappointment and misery, it will be necessary to make a remark or two here on the singular state of mind in which he passed a considerable portion of his time; thus affording a memorable instance that a weak and irresolute character is ultimately as baneful to its possessor as a rooted vicious inclination. The worst school of morals is probably to be found in the society of strolling actors. These persons are almost continually compelled to have recourse to pitiful shifts and stratagems, in order to supply their daily necessities: habits such as these have a direct and unavoidable tendency to deaden and debase all the finer feeling of the mind; they resort to intoxication as an alleviation of care or disappointment; and the resource of mixing in low company, in which some species of entertainment can be purchased at the expence of very little mental exertion, is finally the expedient of those who can derive nothing but pain from solitary communion with themselves.

This appears to have been the fountain from which Mr. Cooke derived all his misfortunes. Powerfully impelled by strong natural bias to a particular profession, in which his abilities were subsequently almost unequalled, and which with common decency of conduct must eventually have raised him to the enviable situation of a gentleman rendering himself independent by the successful exercise of superior talents, he never could emancipate himself from those moral disabilities which a number of years passed among such company, as we have already described, had attached to his mind and character. Had he performed on the London stage ten years earlier in life than he did, it is probable that the better principles of his mind would have predominated; his attachment to low company would undoubtedly have been less rivetted; and the exultation of success and public admiration would have fanned that spark of ambition in which he was not naturally deficient, and made him wish to distinguish himself by other excellences than those which were purely professional. He was for many years sensible of the gradually increasing empire which bad habits, especially that of immoderate drinking, were acquiring over him; and his diary very frequently records good resolutions, with such reasonings on them as only strong natural sense could have dictated. Another day, however, brings a string of self-upbraidings, which had the effect only of lowering his spirits, without producing any durable alteration in his practice. Let the following passage be an example of his manner of expressing himself when in a moralizing humour:

'Having mentioned cards several times, as introduced at the mess, Mr. Cooke explains, by saying, that there was no gambling, at the same time condemns himself for having wasted his time so fruitlessly. "It will very little assist me in defending myself, to say that I have frequently wasted my time in a much worse manner. When a man reconciles himself to himself by making degrees of sin, he is in the utmost danger of advancing to, instead of receding from, the most abominable depravity. It is a doubt with me, whether a gamester (here I take the word in its utmost latitude) or drunkard be the most vicious character, or the most dangerous to society. The former, without deranging his faculties, exerts them all for the avowed purpose of plundering every one he plays with, his dearest friends not excepted, if such a wretch can have a friend; and when, by superior villainy, or some unforeseen chance, he is in his turn beggared, he is ready fitted for the most atrocious crimes, robbery, murder, or suicide. Drunkenness, in addition to the high degree of wickedness attached to it, has the melancholy and woeful effect of degrading the human beneath the brute creation. What confidence can be placed in those persons who are in the habit of rendering themselves incapable of rational exertion? A crime committed in this state is aggravated by the state itself, and in this light both moral and religious law must view it. There have been many excellent arguments used against this beastly vice, and many exposures of its dreadful tendency, but none more strong, pointed, and convincing, than the following short story, I believe an oriental one. A young man was decreed by fate to commit one heinous crime. He was to have the choice of three; but inevitably must choose. It was left to him to make his election of parricide, incest, or drunkenness. He chose the last, got drunk, and committed the former two."'

We need pass over very few pages indeed to contemplate the reverse of all these good reflections. Let us take the actor at his return from Cork:

'All those good resolves which had been made at Cork, and, what is much more extraordinary, adhered to, were now forgotten or despised. Indolence, dissipation, riot, and intoxication, seem to have been the order of the day. His place of resort was a public house kept by one Kearney. His friend Williams had left Buxton, and was now a member of the Dublin company. The names of some of his other companions are mentioned, but I presume they would not be pleased to find them here; although it would not be fair to infer that they promoted the evil we have to lament. A temporary suspension was put to a long series of ebriety by indisposition, and after a day and night of riotous excess, principally at Kearney's, he, on the 6th of January, remained in bed until six in the evening, then went to the theatre, drank some strong coffee, and played the Stranger. Complaints of misery, confusion of ideas, &c. succeed in his journal, and for some days the evil appears to be decreased, though "Kearney's" is far from abandoned.

'This journal has more the air of confessions, than any of his other diaries: he records the hours spent in drunkenness, and recurs to reflections on the weakness of his conduct, making a disgusting medley of vileness and moralizing. He exclaims, with thousands in like circumstances, when suffering brings unavailing repentance, "every inordinate cup is unblessed, and the ingredient is a devil." In a day or two after, I find he again did not withdraw until about four in the morning; and the next day he lies in bed until six in the evening, and then goes to the theatre to play.'

We will now recall our readers, as we willingly relieve ourselves, from details which can only give pain, and proceed to trace the subject of these memoirs in his career of professional reputation.

George Frederick Cooke was born (according to his biographer) in Westminster, on the 17th of April, 1756. Report has often said that he was an Irishman: but this is denied by the present writer on the authority of Mr. Cooke himself, and we are informed that his father was an officer, who married a Scotch lady named Renton; and that, on the death of this gentleman, his widow, who was left in straitened circumstances, retired to the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed, at which place her son received his earliest school-education. The first play which Mr. Cooke ever read was "Venice Preserved;" and the first that he ever saw represented was "The Provoked Husband," performed by a part of the Edinburgh company at Berwick, while he was at school. So strong was the impression on his youthful mind, that he never could wean his thoughts from the dramatic representations which had so forcibly engaged them; plays were procured from every quarter; and the ambition of shining as an amateur-performer very shortly excluded all other considerations. The character of *Horatio* in "The Fair Penitent" was the first which he studied with a view to representation; and the theatrical *company* was composed of his school-fellows. Of their several merits as actors, we are left in ignorance: but their proficiency was in all probability not very encouraging, since it appears from Mr. Cooke's memoirs that he was the only one of the party who afterward had recourse to the stage professionally. On a subsequent occasion, another portion of the Edinburgh company visited Berwick, who also contributed to fan the flame in the youth; and more amateur-acting succeeded in consequence. His first character before an audience was that of *Young Meadows* in "Love in a Village," in which he records of himself that he got through *two songs:* but few persons ever afterward witnessed any of his musical powers. Mrs. Cooke was at this time dead; and his two aunts, who had the care of him, bound him apprentice to a printer at Berwick, named Taylor: but, his ruling passion following him to the press, little attention was paid to business; and he was finally released by his master from his indentures in June 1771, when he was in his 16th year. About this time he went to London, and nothing is known of his occupations, except that in the November following he was in Holland. He is reported to have said that at one period of his life he was a midshipman in the royal navy, and if this be true it was probably at this epoch.

His first appearance as a professed actor was at Brentford in the year 1776. During the five previous years, he had been frequently in London, where he was a constant attendant at the theatre whenever he could procure admission; and he had opportunities of observing Garrick in many of his characters, and old Macklin in those of *Sir Archy M'Sarcasm*, *Shylock*, and *Iago*, a line of acting in which he himself subsequently attained to such distinguished eminence. How he contrived to support himself in London, during so many visits, is a point to which his biographer affords no clue whatever. The Brentford theatre was nothing more than a large room in a public-house; and the first play in which he bore a share was "Jane Shore," in which he took the part of Dumont: but it does not appear that he was received with much applause by the critics of Brentford. In the following year, he acted with a strolling company on the Sussex coast; and in the spring of the year 1778 he made his *debut* in London; 'like Mrs. Siddons, to be neglected and unnoticed, and like her to return at a future period to be the great attraction of the theatre.' Many of the succeeding years of his life may be passed over, with little mention. He performed with different provincial companies until February 1780; when another of his deficiencies of information occurs to his biographer, who loses sight of his hero for twenty months. In October 1781, he re-appears in the midland counties; and his occupations allowed him to be occasionally in London, where he improved himself by studying Mr. Henderson as a model. In 1783, he obtained an engagement at the Manchester theatre, where he made his first appearance as *Philotas* in "The Grecian Daughter," and was warmly received. Mr. Dunlap indulges in some criticisms on this production of Mr. Murphy's pen, but is rather contradictory in his expressions. We do not well see how that play can be 'dull,' if, as he says, 'the incidents are affecting:' but we agree with him that it was deeply indebted for its character to the talents of Mrs. Siddons in the exhibition of it.

Manchester, Liverpool, and the chief places in the surrounding counties beheld, and in some measure appreciated, the talents and ripening taste of the actor, until July 1786, when he made his appearance at York in the character of *Count Baldwin*, in the tragedy of "Isabella." On the same night, Mrs. Siddons appeared in the same piece, in which she had previously created such tumultuous applause in the metropolis. Tate Wilkinson, the celebrated mimic, who (though in much lower walks of the histrionic art) had like Mr. Cooke discovered an invincible propensity to acting at a very early age, was at this time manager of the York theatre. Cooke continued to perform with this and neighbouring companies; and in 1789 we find him acting at Newcastle during the assize-week in conjunction with Mrs. Jordan, who shone at that time in the full perfection of all her fascinating qualities. The stage, at this period, was very fertile in good comedians, and Mr. Cooke had the advantage of acting with many of them during their summer-excursions. Munden was a member of the same company, but obtained the desirable object of an engagement at the metropolis as early as 1790; and, as the salary for the best actors under the country-managers was only about two guineas per week, it is no wonder that this promotion should be anxiously sought. Mr. Cooke, however, still continued a provincial actor, and indeed sometimes a strolling player; in which latter capacity he frequently performed at Buxton, where he lodged some time in the year 1794. His diary was at this period more than usually diffuse; and he appears to have occupied many of his hours in reading: yet the only matter worthy of observation is that, on one occasion, he played *Lear* for his benefit: —he had already performed *Richard* more than once.

A new era was now about to happen in Cooke's life, by his engagement at the Dublin theatre, where he first appeared in the character of *Othello* in November 1794: but the event of an engagement apparently advantageous was not such as his friends might have anticipated for him; and the following words contain his own account of its termination. 'On the second or third of March, I quitted the theatre; I was heartily sick of it; and being appointed to act *Don Felix* in "The Wonder," and no dress provided, I embraced the opportunity of taking my leave. From this period until March 1796, I ceased to be an actor.' (P. 65. vol. i.) The story is differently told by his biographer, who thus accounts for the real cause of the actor's absence, and his occupations during it. Having mentioned some acts of drunken dissipation in which Mr. Cooke had been engaged, he adds; 'the disgrace attending the notoriety of this transaction drove him on to further mad intemperance: the stage was abandoned; and, in a fit of drunkenness and despair, he enlisted as a private in a regiment destined for the West Indies. A fit of sickness prevented him from embarking with his regiment: yet, though in England, he remained altogether lost until the year 1796.' He was discovered in this situation by the manager of the Portsmouth theatre, at Southampton; and some miserable scenes of poverty and sickness followed until he was persuaded by the Manchester managers to resume his station on their boards, where he was enthusiastically greeted on his return. Mr. H. Johnston was a member of the company. The usual round of towns and characters succeeded: but in September 1797 Mr. Cooke once more embarked for Ireland [*]. This was an unfortunate period; because the precautionary measures of government, during the disturbances then existing, required the theatres to be closed for some time. Mr. J. Kemble visited Dublin at this juncture, and these future rivals for the histrionic crown played on the same boards during several nights. From Dublin, Mr. Cooke made a theatrical tour to Cork, Limerick, and other places. In 1799, he was again performing in Dublin: but better scenes were opening to him, and early in the year 1800 he received an invitation from Mr. Lewis of Covent-Garden theatre to join his theatrical corps in the ensuing season. — The offer was accepted; though Cooke states in his journal that he had refused the very same terms seven years antecedently: a circumstance which, if true, must have proceeded from some of the unaccountable caprices to which he was subject.

Mr. Cooke was now forty-four years of age, twenty-four of which he had passed as a professed actor. As his life was consequently advanced to that period at which the habits and propensities of the man are in general irrevocably fixed, it will not surprize the reader that, although he made some successful attempts to shake off his baneful attachment to low company, his victories were temporary and his relapses continual. These bad courses were accompanied by such great imprudence in pecuniary concerns, that the comparative affluence, which his engagement in London afforded, left his purse frequently as empty as it was when he depended on the precarious supplies of provincial managers. October 31st, 1800, he made his first appearance in the metropolis as *Richard the Third*, and at once, by his just conception and masterly delineation of the character, established his fame as an actor of the first eminence. Mr. Kemble was present at the representation; and, though he continued to act this part for a short time subsequently, with an unsuccessful struggle, he soon resigned it altogether. *Shylock* was Cooke's second exhibition, and *Sir Archy M'Sarcasm*, in Macklin's farce of "Love à la Mode," was his third. This last had not been revived since Macklin's death. In *Iago*, which was the next on his list, he had no competitor; nor had the character, indeed, (as Mr. Dunlap justly observes,) been ably represented since Henderson held it. The criticism, which asserts that Cooke betrayed too much of the workings of his mind in this part, will, if just, apply equally to Mr. Kean, the legitimate heir to his line of characters: but we agree with the biographer that the observation is unfounded, since these emotions are disclosed much more pointedly to the audience than to *Othello* himself.

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[*] We learn that he was married, while at Chester, in the preceding year, to a Miss Daniells of that theatre: but the marriage was afterward declared null by law, of the reasons for which Mr. Dunlap omits all mention.

> '*Iago* is another character,' (says the author,) 'which did not suffer in the representation from any of those peculiarities of manner or voice remarkable in Mr. Cooke; while the quickness of his action, and the strong natural expression of feeling, which were as peculiarly his own, identified him with the character.' (P. 136. vol. i.)

Mr. Cooke's next effort was as *Macbeth:* but he was not a general actor; and, when he departed from that walk in which he was inimitable, he most frequently was surpassed by his competitors. Kemble's victory here, though contested with some obstinacy, was complete. — The part of *Kitely*, in Ben Jonson's comedy of "Every Man in his Humour," was held out as the next attraction, and Cooke was not afraid to cope with the recollections of Garrick. We have already recorded this as one of the characters in which he had seen our British Roscius; and he said to Mr. Dunlap that he had profited much by his reminiscences. In "The

Stranger," he again yielded the palm to Kemble, and never repeated the character in London. — On Saturday March 28. 1800, Massinger's comedy of "A New Way to pay old Debts" was revived, for the benefit of Mr. Lewes; in which Mr. Cooke performed *Sir Giles Over-reach* to Mr. Lewes's *Wellborn.* The talents of such consummate actors as Mr. Cooke and Mr. Kean have conferred a consequence on this play beyond its intrinsic value. It betrays a want of contrast to the portrait of *Sir Giles,* which we do not see that the part of *Lord Lovell* furnishes; indeed, that part is generally assigned to an inferior performer, and has little in it to elicit any excellence in representation. The whole play rests on one character, and on the very forcible delineation of that character. The dreadful deformity of mind, exhibited in Sir Giles, undoubtedly gives great scope to the actor: but that mind is not strongly influenced by external circumstances until late in the drama, and much of the representation has elapsed before any deep feelings can be excited in the audience. Mr. Kean is most ably seconded by Mr. Munden in Marrall, and his final scene is a wonderful specimen of his powers: but we confess that our recollections of Cooke in this part are not so vivid as in many others.

Mr. Cooke closed his first season in London as he began it, with *Richard the Third;* and his biographer says that the stimulus of ambition, during this first campaign, was so forcible as to overpower his unfortunate drinking propensities. His celebrity in the metropolis procured for him the most eligible engagements in his summer-tour, through which we shall not follow him. — September the 14th, 1801, he was advertized to appear in *Richard,* on the night on which Covent-Garden opened for the season: a crowded audience was collected to receive him, but no tidings of Mr. Cooke arrived, nor did he make his appearance in London until the fifteenth. He never accounted satisfactorily for his absence; nor do we learn that during it he performed elsewhere, having merely loitered away his time in country-towns between Newcastle and London.

In November, he added *Stukely* to his former characters. *Zanga* in "the Revenge," *Jaques* in "As you like it," *Orsino* in "Alfonso King of Castile," *Sir Pertinax M'Sycophant* in "The Man of the World," *Falstaff* in "The Merry Wives of Windsor," *Sir Edward Mortimer* in "The Iron Chest," and *Bajazet* in "Tamerlane," comprise the list of new parts in which he appeared during this season to a London audience. Of these, Sir Pertinax claims decidedly the first place, if indeed it was not altogether Cooke's *chef-d'œuvre.* The comedy of "The Man of the World"* was brought out by Macklin in May 1781, and the author himself performed *Sir Pertinax*, being at that time upwards of ninety years of age: he continued on the stage more than eight years afterward, and died in July 1797, after he had completed his 107th year. Macklin had no worthy successor in his favourite character till the appearance of Mr. Cooke, who is almost universally allowed to have surpassed his original.

In September 1802, Cooke again opened the season with *Richard*, for the thirty-sixth time of having played it to a London audience. The characters of *Hamlet*, in which he altogether failed, *Cato*, and *Peregrine* in "John Bull," which did not add much to his former reputation, were produced by him as successive novelties for the public: but his irregularities, and the consequent disappointments which the audience frequently experienced, were no longer to be excused by the pleas of "sudden indisposition," and his popularity was very evidently on the decline; nor does it appear that Mr. Harris gave him his benefit free from the expences of the house, which had been the case on former occasions, and had rendered them very productive. At this period, Mr. Cooke first became acquainted with Mr. Cooper, then engaged at Drury-Lane, who afterward returned to his own stage in America; and a strong friendship was excited towards him in Cooke's mind, which had so fatal an influence on his later years.

Mr. Kemble and Mrs. Siddons seceded from Drury-Lane in September 1803, and joined the Covent-Garden company; which with the addition of Cooke now set all competition at defiance: yet the season was not so successful as the manager might have anticipated; nor was the selection of characters, in which Cooke appeared, formed either with judgment or with due reference to his peculiar excellences. His summer theatrical excursion, in 1804, included the north of Ireland; his popularity in which quarter could by no means have faded, since he received at Belfast one hundred guineas per week for three weeks, and the same at Londonderry for one week. Soon after his return to London, the ephemeral rage for infant-actors commenced its short reign; and nothing was said, seen, or heard, but Master Betty. Kemble and Mrs. Siddons withdrew from so disgraceful a competition, but

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* This play was acted in Dublin under the title of "The True Born Scotchman," as early as the year 1760. Mr. Dunlap was acquainted with a gentleman who bore a part in the representation.

Mr. Cooke's finances were not in such a state as to allow him to follow the suggestions of a gentlemanly pride.

The autumn of 1805 saw Cooke recommence at Covent-Garden. His new characters in this season were *Lord Davenant* in "The Mysterious Husband," *Pierre* in "Venice preserved," and *Iachimo* in "Cymbeline." — In 1806 nothing worthy of record happened in the first division of the season: but in the new year he tried *Macbeth* again, as also *Prospero* in "The Tempest." His *indispositions* were frequent: but it is remarkable that, on such occasions, as long he *could* speak, he continued to speak in the Scotch dialect if his part required it. Once, while performing the part of *Sir Archy M'Sarcasm*, he forgot his own denomination, and called himself *Sir Pertinax;* when a gallery-critic noticing the lapse, and reminding him of his name, he looked up, and replied very happily, "*Eets aw ane blude.*" (Vol. 1. p. 333.)

The summer-expedition in 1807 was the most melancholy that Cooke had witnessed. Covent-Garden opened in the autumn without his appearance; and he did not again come forwards there until the spring of 1808. Many concurring circumstances render it highly probable that he was confined in Appleby jail for debt, during the intervening time: but surely it was the duty of his biographer not to have advanced this surmise, however strongly warranted by conjecture, without having made those inquiries which would have been easily within his reach. That Mr. Cooke, who never gamed, had no expensive establishment, and in fact no expensive habit but the one to which we have often alluded, (and which his purse could afford much better than his constitution,) when he was in the receipt of an income with which few actors could vie, should have been subject to such pecuniary embarrassments, does indeed appear a little extraordinary: but the character of the man laid him very open to imposition; and the annexed quotation may possibly, if it be founded in fact, throw some light on the mode in which he disposed of his resources:

> 'Having received the amount of a benefit and the proceeds of an engagement at Manchester, he pocketed the whole, three or four hundred pounds, and that evening fell into company at a public-house with some republican manufacturers of the neighbourhood. The loyalty of our hero was always great, but increased in warmth thermometrically with his stomach and head. One of the mechanics entered the field of political disputation with George Frederick, who soon became intemperate in words as well as conduct, and finally challenged his antagonist to determine the controversy

troversy by the fist. The man, who knew him and his reputation, endeavoured to avoid the necessity of beating him, and excused himself by "Nah now, Mr. Cooke, you know I would not harm you if I could; you take the liberty of abusing me and challenging me, because you are rich, and know I am a poor man."

'"Do I?" says George, "I'll shew you that. There look," pulling all the bank-notes from his pocket, "there — that's all I have in the world—there," putting them in the fire. "Now I am as poor as you are — now, damn you, come on!"

'Such destruction of property, and gifts made in the moments of ebriety, as irrational and destructive, perhaps more pernicious, fully account for my hero's melancholy confinement in the winter of 1807.'

It appears to have been during this period that Mr. Cooke completed his former diaries, to which he gave the name of "The Chronicle;" his subsequent memoranda being distinguished by the title of his "Journal." — At the conclusion of his Chronicle, he enumerates all the characters which he had performed in London:

'"Richard III.; Lear; Macbeth; Hamlet; Iago; Iachimo; Hubert; The three Falstaffs; Jacques; Angelo; Prospero; Macduff; The Ghost; King John (altered); Bajazet; Zanga; Sciolto; Shore; Glenalvon; Stukely; Pierre; (Coriolanus; at D.-L.) Lord Davenant; Pizarro; Kitely; Sir Giles Over-reach; Sir Pertinax M‘Sycophant; Strickland; Major Oakley; Sir Philip Blandford; Mortimer; Haswell; Sir Archy M‘Sarcasm; Comus; recited the Jubilee ode by Garrick, and an epilogue to — (name forgot) by G. Colman the *younger*.

'"Original characters," or characters of which he was the first or original actor.

'"Peregrine; Orsino; Lord Avondale; Sandy M‘Tab (*damned first night*); Lavensworth; a part in a comedy of Mr. Holman's, (*name forgot; damned first night*); Prince of Altenburgh."'

He next proceeds to specify all the actors of note whom he had ever seen, and in what characters. The detail, though short, is curious, and closes thus:

'The following, though within my recollection, I never was so fortunate as to view — Messrs. Mossop, Powell, Holland, and Ryder; Mrs. Cibber, Mrs. Pritchard, and Mrs. Clive. Those I have *mentioned, I perfectly recollect.* As I do not understand music, I shall only mention the singers I have seen who could act. Messrs. Vernon, Webster, and Bannister. *These added the shirt to the ruffle!*'

We are told that Cooke was liberated from his confinement by Mr. Rock, the manager of the Glasgow theatre, who was remunerated by the professional exertions of the former in his service. On the 10th of March 1808, he re-appeared at Covent-Garden, in Sir Pertinax; 'to the greatest money-house, one excepted, ever known at that theatre. Never was a performer received in a more gratifying or flattering manner.'

The view which we have already given of Mr. Cooke, during his London engagements, will be sufficient for our readers, with the assistance of their own recollections, to supply the succeeding scenes, until he finally bade farewell to a London audience in 1810, soon after the cessation of the O P riots, when his voice could be once more heard in an edifice worthy of such an actor. — Melancholy scenes of humiliation preceded his retirement; and the frequent disappointment which he occasioned to the public by non-appearance at his post, or by appearing in a state which rendered him unable to gratify their expectations, at length exhausted in the lovers of the drama a patience which had really been too liberally manifested, and caused them to forget the excellences of the actor while they condemned the weakness of the man. — It was under circumstances such as these, that Mr. Cooke retired from the metropolis to Liverpool in July 1810. Here, while engaged in his professional duties, he met with that Mr. Cooper who has been already mentioned, and who was then just arrived from America to engage some performers for the New York theatre, of which he was manager. The interviews and conversations between Cooke and Cooper are detailed by Mr. Dunlap with a prolixity which is very disgusting. How far Mr. Cooke was in a state that allowed him to be capable of judging of his own interests, when he consented to leave his country, we are not able to ascertain, nor have we grounds on which we might form an opinion. The tricks and stratagems, however, played-off by Mr. Cooper, if we may rely on Mr. Dunlap, who apparently writes to justify him, would prevent us from regarding any statement, issued under his authority, as sufficient grounds for an opinion.

In the fifty-fourth year of his age, on the 21st of November 1810, Mr. Cooke appeared in the character of *Richard the Third* on the stage of New York; and it was here that Mr. Dunlap's acquaintance with him commenced. We observe that, in his journal of this period, he simply mentions the names of the persons with whom his new engagements connected him, without any remark to their advantage or disadvantage *. He played seventeen nights at New York; and the amount of the money received by the manager was *twenty-five thousand, five hundred, and seventy-eight dollars.* —

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* Of one of the managers, named Price, he speaks as being a friendly hospitable man.

Cooke then proceeded to Boston, where the author describes him as constantly intoxicated or sick. At such times he frequently spoke of himself as having served in the royal army during the American war: but, as he is also said to have indulged in much rhodomontade, it is impossible to be certain whether he ever did cross the Atlantic previously to his last voyage: if he had, he could have remained but a very few months in America. Curiosity, not taste, had procured for him a flattering reception on his first visit to New York; and, when he revisited it after a few months with unimpaired powers, he met with little better than neglect.

Philadelphia was his next scene of action: but of his theatrical performances we shall cease to speak, since we should merely recapitulate former characters. Mr. Dunlap now begins to describe him as 'a miserable madman,' and by other phrases scarcely less measured. In his conversation, he doubtless was very violent: his avowed contempt of every thing American was his constant theme; and he scattered his epithets freely and unbearably. When told that Mr. Madison purposed to come from Washington to see him act, he indulged in the following violent language:

'"If he does, I'll be d——d if I play before him. What! I! George Frederick Cooke! who have acted before the majesty of Britain, play before your yankee president! No!—I'll go forward to the audience, and I'll say, Ladies and gentlemen—"

'Here he was interrupted playfully by Mr. W——, who happened to be dressed in black—

'"Oh, no, Mr. Cooke, that would not be right in this country; you should say, Friends and fellow-citizens."

'Cooke, surveying him contemptuously, cried,

'"Hold your tongue, you d——d methodist preacher," and then proceeded—"Ladies and gentlemen, the king of the yankee doodles has come to see me act! me, *me*, George Frederick Cooke! who have stood before my royal master George the Third, and received his imperial approbation! And shall I exert myself to play before one of his rebellious subjects, who arrogates kingly state in defiance of his master? No, it is degradation enough to play before rebels; but I'll not go on for the amusement of a king of rebels, the contemptible king of the yankee doodles!"

'This effusion only excited laughter, and he went on to expatiate on his deeds of arms in the war against the rebels, and every place in the neighbourhood where an action had been fought, was the scene of his military achievements.

'His garrulity led him to talk of his domestic affairs, and to lament that he had no children; but shortly after, filling a bumper, he proposed the health of his eldest son, a captain in the fifth.

'"What is his name, Mr. Cooke?"

'"What is my name, Sir? George Frederick Cooke."

'A short time after his second son was proposed with a bumper.

'"What is his name, Mr. Cooke?"

'"What should it be, Sir, but George Frederick Cooke?"

'With difficulty he was prevailed upon to get into a coach to return home to Baltimore. Still it was necessary that some one should attend him, and late at night, his host performed that kind office. This offended Cooke, and he began to abuse him, and every thing belonging to the country. This gentleman observing a stump of a tree near the wheel-track, as they passed through a grove, cautioned the coachman. "What, Sir, do you pretend to direct my servant?" cries Cooke. His companion humoured him, by apologizing; but seeing the coachman driving too near the edge of a bridge, he again spoke to him—

'"This is too much," cries Cooke, "get out of my coach, Sir!—out—stop, coachman!"

'"Drive on!"

'"Get out! Do you order my coachman? Get out, or this fist shall—"

'Mr. ——, who had been told Cooke's character, interrupted him, by exclaiming,

'"Sit still, Sir, or I'll blow your brains out this instant."

'Cooke was petrified, and sat like a statue—but soon began with "Has George Frederick Cooke come to this d——d country to be treated thus? Shall it be told in England!—Well, Sir, if you will not get out, I will," and he opened the door. Mr. H—— was obliged to stop the coach, for fear of injury to Cooke, who tumbled himself out, and surlily sat down under a tree. With great difficulty his opposition was overcome, and Mr. H——, near day-light, got rid of his troublesome and turbulent guest, by depositing him at his lodgings.'

It was at Baltimore, where he had a short engagement, that this disgraceful scene occurred. On his return to New York, he married a Mrs. Behn for his second wife. His last appearance on the stage was at Boston, 31st July 1812, in the character of *Sir Giles Over-reach*. His constitution was at this time severely shaken; in the following September, his end was evidently approaching; and on the morning of the 26th of that month, while in the full possession of his mental faculties, (as his physicians state,) and in perfect consciousness of his approaching change, he calmly expired, at the age of fifty-six years and five months. His remains were deposited in the burying-ground of St. Paul's Church, in New York, and becoming respect to departed genius is said to have been amply paid on that melancholy occasion.

It was probably Mr. Cooke's intention to have returned to his native country at the commencement of the following year, since he had received an invitation to resume his station at Covent-Garden from Mr. Harris, and had more than once made preparations for his departure from America. The recollections of him on the stage of the metropolis are so fresh, that any criticism on his style of representation would be as impertinent as it would be foreign to our plan. Mr. Kean is justly considered as his legitimate heir in his peculiar line of character: but our avocations do not allow us many opportunities of comparing the impressions which we receive from the one with our recollections of the other; nor indeed would we willingly claim the invidious task of classing their respective merits. Two such actors in succession, depicting in so masterly a manner a cast of the human character which is rare in occurrence and wonderfully difficult in delineation, must undoubtedly have no trifling influence in refining the public taste in all that regards dramatic representation. Flying, therefore, from the comparison of them, we have only to add, "*Et vitulâ tu dignus, et hic.*"

Art. VI. *Poetical Epistles,* and Specimens of Poetical Translation, particularly from Petrarch and Dante. 2d Edition. Crown 8vo. pp. 256. Longman and Co.

Art. VII. *Specimens of Translation,* from Horace and other ancient Poets; with some additional Poems. By the Author of *Poetical Epistles,* &c. Crown 8vo. pp. 133. Longman and Co.

Good sense and good poetry pervade these Epistles, which shew the author to be a man of education, taste, and feeling. The first of them, 'From a Scotchman in London to his Friend in Scotland,' refers to the early pleasures and rural delights of their younger days, and laments the writer's confinement in the crowded and hot streets of the metropolis, while his friend still roves about in the enjoyment of the free air and noble scenery of their native country. The author then turns to literary topics; and, having spoken of Shakspeare and Milton, he thus poetically exclaims:

'Others there are with less gigantic claim,
Yet high o'er all the later born of fame.
Such Dryden — who now boasts his careless skill?
Easy at all times, breathing fire at will:
Not every phrase select, but scarce a line
Without some touches of the hand divine:
A Proteus-mind replete with images,
Still on the watch some new strange shape to seize,
And seize what shape he will, secure alike to please.
Who shall inherit, say, (fantastic hope!)
The pointed fine propriety of Pope;
Goldsmith's pathetic truth, Gray's Gothic pride,
Or all the Grecian glow of Akenside?

Alas! we now have no such strains as those!
Cowper is rude, and Southey sometimes prose;
Not but we own their beauties numerous too,
Descriptive, natural, for the most part new:
Nor yet deny that Darwin's syrup stile,
Intoxicates the fancy for a while,
But we soon sicken with its oily flow;
Who, pray, would twice get drunk upon noyau?'

In the re-print of this Epistle, in the volume of '*Specimens of Translation*,' a just and eloquent tribute is added to the worthies of Scotland.

To the second Epistle, however, we would principally call the reader's attention, as to a very pleasing and various description of interesting scenes in England, Wales, and Scotland, which the author visited in person. He seems to be gifted with a keen sense of admiration for the beauties of nature, and transfuses his sensations into the poem before us with a very masterly hand. We meet with touches, indeed, which strongly remind us of "The Pleasures of Memory;" and others which approach to the vigour of the poet of "Hope." The following is much in the manner of Rogers:

' Free as the gales, and early as the dawn,
Forth did we fly along the level lawn,
When sacred call the master sent away,
And gave the happy summer-holiday!
Some, lightly sped where on the orchard steep,
The shaken apples fell in pattering heap,
And lent their busy aid to gather in,
And fill'd their pouches too—a venial sin!
Some, by the river-bank as gaily far'd,
And held deep converse with the laughing *laird*.
Some, to the glen with nut-hook in their hands,
Telling their tales the while, in merry bands,
Drew the brown cluster down with breaking crush,
Or stain'd their lips with brambles from the bush.
Some, more retir'd (and I might be of these)
Lay on the wild bank 'mid the hum of bees,
Reading some legend old of Scotish fame,
The Bruce, the Douglas, and each warrior name;
Then homewards with the setting sun, to hear
The solemn evening duly clos'd with prayer!

' O why should pleasure youth's wild eye allure
From nature's guardian arms to scenes less pure?
Why should our manhood be ambition's slave,
Or creep the drudge of avarice to the grave?
Why should the sun on man's unconscious gaze,
Pour from the eastern hill his living rays?
Or why his softening splendour gild the west,
Nor raise one wish that such may be our rest?
Ah! far at sea, and wanderers from the shore,
Nature still calls us, but we hear no more!

Yet where her pensive look reflection throws;
Remember'd forms of beauty yield repose;
On them, she pauses, and with filling eye,
Plans the blest refuge of futurity!
Thus to the scenes in which our childhood past,
Memory returns with love that still can last;
Wherever, since, our vagrant course has been,
Whatever troubled hours have come between,
Those simple beauties, which could first engage
Our hearts, still please through each succeeding age;
Nor are they yet so sunk in meaner care,
That nature's image quits its impress there!'

The passage that succeeds, descriptive of the delight with which

—— 'the cold reasonings of the sceptic sage'

were exchanged at Oxford for poetical rambles or expeditions down the Isis, must be very pleasing to those who are acquainted with the scenes described: but we rather prefer to introduce our readers to a more extended ramble of the author, and accompany him to the enchanting or inspiring scenery in the neighbourhood of Beth-Gelert.—How comes he (we may ask *en passant*) to have omitted all notice of the divine vale of Llanberis? Surely, no poet, or painter, can have passed through that *dream of beauty* (for it is perfectly visionary in form and feeling) without an indelible impression on his imagination.

'Nature! thy hand was on me, when I broke
The cloister spell, and like a giant woke,
Burst the dull bonds of indolence, and sought
The Cambrian mountains in romantic thought!
In glorious independence forth I strode,
Alone, on foot, and on an unknown road;
Blest when I left the fertile plains, and found
Sky all above me, hills on hills around.
Long days I travell'd far and unconfin'd,
Gazing on clouds, conversing with the wind;
Sate by the mountain-stream, and joy'd to see
All nature great in savage liberty!
Few words essay'd, the native pass'd me by,
Unknown to both the question or reply;
Yet did I love to mark his simple guise,
And lov'd the fire that sparkled in his eyes.

'Fair was the sacred morn, the streams were gay,
Thy vale Bethgelert cross'd my lingering way:
Above thy little huts, high Snowdon tower'd,
And clouds that wreath'd his summit smil'd and lour'd.
The rustics pass'd in many a well-dress'd pair,
All reverent sought their lowly house of prayer,

> And chaunted their wild hymn, which in mine ear
> In "still small" whispers told that God was here!'

The visit to the Lakes is well recorded; and we cannot deny either ourselves or our readers the pleasure of a selection from it:

> 'O ye rude rocks, not then your caverns rung
> To the wild harp by copious Southey strung;
> Nor Coleridge to the wondering rustic throng,
> Pour'd his rich tide of eloquence along;
> Then echo heard alone, on fell or shore,
> The bleat of lambs, the murmurs of Lodore!
>
> 'Can I forget the hallow'd hour I past
> In Grasmere chapel, in the lonely waste,
> Driven by the rains that patter'd on the lake,
> (Perhaps no holier cause) repose to take?
> The simple people to each separate hand
> Divided, youths and maids in different band;
> Of the great power of God, their pastor spoke;
> Responsive from the hills loud thunders broke,
> From the black smoking hills whose wavering line
> Through lead-bound panes was dimly seen to shine.
> I felt the voice of Man and Nature roll
> The deep conviction on my bending soul!
> What if, amid the rural tribe, unknown,
> From Wordsworth's eye some moral glory shone,
> Some beam of poesy and good combin'd,
> That found the secret foldings of my mind?'

There is something 'not undelightful' to us in the concluding idea of this passage.—The author is so true a Scotchman, that we should do no justice to the character of the poem which we are praising, if we suffered it to be thought that his chief panegyric was bestowed on the scenes above mentioned:

> 'But what are Cambria's mountains, Cornwall's floods,
> Rich Albion's vales and lakes and crowded woods,
> To my own native land? from her, my strain
> Began, to her rejoicing turns again,
> And thee, my ———, whose genuine mind,
> Free from all sickly dreams, misnam'd refin'd,
> Owns no sincerer rapture than is given,
> By the green lap of earth and azure heaven!
> Witness the vale, where Tweed's clear current flows,
> And Dryburgh's woody bower, and fair Melrose!'

We observe, also, a candour in his patriotism which does not always accompany that great quality. He *finds fault* indeed with those who *find fault* with Scotland: but yet he allows the *faults* to exist. For instance, in the First Epistle:

‘ These are thy riches, Scotland!—grac'd with these,
Scoffers may spy thee naked as they please,
Paint, if they will, the hut we found in Mull!
A Noah's ark of animals choak-full;
Three or four children tumbling on one bed,
The woman with the bushy carrot-head,
Who squatted by the fire upon a stool,
Suckling a child, and carding greasy wool,
Her ferret-eyes half hid and parchment-hide
Amid the smoke, that pour'd on every side,
And only at the door could find a vent;
The raw-bòn'd wench who through the hovel went,
Now, drawing long threads from the larger wheel,
Now, cooking o'er the fire their fishy meal;
While puppies, kittens, rats, and mice, and chickens
Hopp'd round the hearth, and gather'd up the pickings.
O, to the eye of prejudice alone,
In giant size these LITTLE SPECKS are shewn!’

‘ The Temptation of Judas,’ from Klopstock's Messiah, is an animated little poem: but the versification is too much broken and roughened by inharmonious pauses; whether the fault be in the writer's own erroneous conception of the Spenserian stanza, or whether he has sinned wilfully in imitation of a rugged original. The idea of the dream of Judas, in which his own barren heritage is contrasted with the richer portion of the favoured disciples, has a parallelism in Gesner's Death of Abel.—The present author has an *odd* way of pronouncing some words. For example: ‘ Constāntine.’ ‘ Lebbeūs.’ ‘ Sepūlchre.’

Among the ‘ Occasional Poems,’ we find some good lines, but nothing peculiar. In the Address to Bonaparte, the last line of several of the stanzas has a syllable too much.

‘ We hail it with a grateful voice’

cannot be associated with such lines as

‘ Fox's patriot day is o'er,’

and profess to be of the same length.

Some of the lines in the Translations from the Italian are uncommonly *flat*:

‘ I was not *quite* the man of aftertimes;’

or,

‘ It's efforts now alas! are *flat despair*;’

or,

‘ Now Progne *prates*, and Philomela mourns;’

or (and the extraordinary nature of the original may *in vain* be pleaded to excuse it,)

'Forget'st thou the first hour of the sixth day
Of April, the three hundred, forty eight,
And thousandth year—when she her earthly mansion left?'

Some, however, of the several sonnets on Laura's death are happily rendered; and they all manifest more or less of a classical and poetical mind in the translator. The version of the celebrated

"*Ite, rime dolenti, al duro sasso*," &c.

is one of the best in the collection.

The horrible story of Ugolino is rendered with spirit from Dante; though it is liable to the same objection as that which we mentioned in the translation from Klopstock.

The 'Juvenile Poems,' which conclude the volume, might as well have been omitted. In the long address 'To the Moon,' we cannot sympathize; and in the 'Lines on Delia's Marriage,' when the author had begun one stanza with '*Good Heavens!*' we confess that we should not have been surprized to have seen another stanza end with '*Gracious Me!*'

We turn now to the separate volume of *Translations*. 'The last piece,' we are told, 'is introduced with some propriety; as, though not a translation, it is rather a *fortunate* imitation of Horace's famous *Iter ad Brundusium*.' On reading this passage in the advertisement, we were in course led by the praise of the imitation in question to conclude that it was the work of a friend, not of the author himself: but no intimation of this kind was given to us when we turned to the place in the volume, and we therefore are left to infer that the writer has adopted the very unusual candour of self-approbation which is manifest in the remark cited above. Our curiosity to examine his 'Imitation' was thus naturally increased; and, if we were proportionably disappointed, he has to thank himself for the opinions arising from that additional disappointment. In plain truth, an author's notions of his own success require to be lowered, when he can call '*rather fortunate*' such effusions as the following:

'We gave the point up, rose and search'd about
The harbour for a boat; no boat was out.
"Then get one presently into the water."
"What will you give?" "Why what's your price?"—this matter
Kept us a full hour. When at last we got
Aboard, we found the boatman a mere sot.
He tack'd and then steer'd on, and then would tack
Again, and we were always falling back;
Meantime the waves tempestuously lash'd
The sails, and in our sputtering faces dash'd.
A hot-brain'd Irishman thought he could rule
My man: he was as stubborn as a mule.'

We subjoin one other specimen of this '*rather fortunate imitation:*'

> 'Now sing, O muse, the contest which befell
> Between the valet and the Abigail!
> We in a small warm room were sitting quiet,
> Listening the pattering rain, when sudden riot
> Burst on our ears, and, in shrill voice, began
> A female warior, — rough replied a man.
> "I never in my life saw such a brute."
> We star'd and laugh'd. "There's always some dispute
> With you:" "What! in this shower to bid me pack
> The things into the *chay!*" "'Done with your clack."
> "Marry come up, because forsooth they stay
> All night, and want fresh clothes put in the *chay,*
> I must walk out and get my death of cold!"
> "For God's sake do your business and don't scold:
> To see how high some folks their heads will carry!
> Such pride would damn your mistress, Lady Mary!"
> This tragedy, or farce,—call't which you will,
> Lasted our supper out, and all was still!'

May we not exclaim,

> "Oh had it been poor Horace' fate,
> To hear such stuff call'd *fortunate,*
> It must have made him mad!"

as mad as King David with Sternhold and Hopkins.

Let us examine the more serious parts of the volume.

Canidia. — 5th Epode.

> 'Mercy, mercy, blessed powers!
> Ye guardians of the human race!
> What means this *rout?*'

Leuconoe. — Book i. Ode 11.

> 'Best still to meet cheerful what *may've betid.*'

The Art of Poetry.

> 'Words are a short liv'd race—the leaves that *grac'd*
> Our woods in spring, have scarcely fall'n more *fast.*'

The author talks of adapting his style to that of the original. He therefore intitles some of his poems '*Sonnets* from Horace;' and he translates Anacreon into we know not what—"*Lilliputian Lyrics,*" perhaps, may be as good a name as any other, and we beg leave to suggest it.

Anacreon. — *Ode* 19.

> 'The earth drinks the rain,
> The trees drink it again,

The seas drink the breeze,
The sun, the seas:
The moon drinks the sun;
My friends have done;
Shall I alone
Drink none?'

Who would believe that Homer was the original of the following *serious* translation?

'When they were met,
And together set,
Achilles, swift of foot, his mind did thus declare?'

or that the Doric sweetness of Theocritus gave cause for such sad balderdash as the subjoined?

'Hoot, Thestylis, canna ye lay it on the fire?
Ye're wud, or winna ye do as I desire?'

Caledonia is not Dorica.

It is much to be regretted that a writer who, as we have shewn in the first part of this article, is capable of a very superior style, should descend to such low familiarities (to say no more of them) as we have now been called to notice. Yet this is a species of regret which we are often compelled to feel; and, indeed, youthful genius seems to be marked by a sort of exuberance, of "scum uppermost," if we may adopt the expression, which must be skimmed off by the care and caution of experience, before the food which it supplies can be relished by an improved taste. We would take a good-humoured leave, however, of an author who may be said in the first instance at least to have given us an elegant little volume; only exhorting him to be any thing but *witty* when he writes again.

Art. VIII. *Dr.* Cook's *History of the Church of Scotland.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 185.]

Whatever predisposition might have existed in the Scotish Reformation to assume a regimen of equality, it is very certain that in the life-time of Knox no such form was given to it: on the contrary, very shortly before his demise, it had been made subject to the episcopal system; and the measure had taken place without occasioning the slightest commotion or disturbance. . In the opinion of Dr. Cook, indeed, so well adapted was this polity to the circumstances of the new church, and such was the moderation as to these matters which then prevailed among its members, that, but for the intervention of extraneous causes, this form of rule bade fair to have been of indefinite duration. No sooner, however, had the great Reformer closed his eyes, than causes began to operate, and an actor appeared on the stage, that gave a new turn to affairs and rapidly changed the scene. These causes were the impolitic measures, founded in avarice, of the regent Morton, towards the entire body of the clergy; which, it is thought, imparted to them an interest in a regimen different from the one that was established, and created a prevailing bias in favour of the alteration. Andrew Melvil, a most zealous and able advocate of the presbyterian form of church-government, about this time fixed his residence in Scotland, availed himself of this disposition, and never abated his labours till he subverted the episcopal model, and caused his own favourite plan to be established on its ruins. This well known person is thus introduced to us by the author:

> 'This eminent man was descended from a respectable family, and was born, in the year 1545, at Baldovie, in the neighbourhood of Montrose. He received the elements of his education at the school of that town,—he completed, with high applause, a course of philosophy at St. Andrew's, — and he afterwards studied for some time at the university of Paris, the reputation of which was diffused over Europe. Having gone to Poictiers, he filled, for a few years, a professor's chair in the college, and when, upon the place being besieged, the students were dispersed, he was received into the family of a man of rank, as the preceptor of his only son. His pupil having been accidentally killed in the course of the siege, he left Poictiers and came to Geneva, the seat of ecclesiastical reformation. He was appointed professor of humanity, a decisive proof that his early reputation for science and learning had not diminished; and he listened with admiration and conviction to the principles respecting church-government which Calvin inculcated, and which were enforced with fiercer zeal by Beza, the illustrious disciple of that great reformer. The fame of Melvil made a deep impression upon the Bishop of Brechin, who happened to visit Geneva, and, convinced that his abilities would be of much service to the cause of religion in Scotland, he earnestly requested him to renounce the situation which he held, and to visit his native land. He felt that desire to comply which the associations of his youth so naturally tended to create, but he found much difficulty in obtaining permission, and when this was at length granted, Beza wrote with him to the General Assembly, bearing the strongest testimony to his piety and his literary attainments, and added, "that the greatest token of affection the church and university of Geneva could shew to Scotland was, that they had suffered themselves to be robbed of Mr. Andrew Melvil, that the church of Scotland might be enriched." This letter, which was delivered to the General Assembly which met in August, raised the expectations of the clergy with regard to Melvil. He was solicited to settle at St.

Andrew's, but, in consequence of the intreaties of the Archbishop of Glasgow, he received the important situation of principal in the university of that city.'

In the commencement of his career, Melvil proceeded with address and caution: but, in the sequel, finding the ground firm under him, he grew more bold, and became little scrupulous. It must, however, be admitted that, if in the execution of his schemes he shewed not much regard to the feelings of others, he sacrificed his own interests to the same objects.

His first essay, in fulfilment of his mission, was by means of a highly popular minister to sound a General Assembly on the legality of the office of bishop; to which he, the measure having been carried, in his own person made very forcible objections. He also induced the same Assembly to decree a report to be made on the subject. Though the members of this body shewed an inclination to his side, he was not able in the first instance to procure such a decision as he wanted, and the arrangments of Leith were left undisturbed: but he and his adherents were not to be discouraged by a slight rebuff; they did not abandon the attack, but varied its mode; and, perceiving that the citadel was not to be taken by storm, they resolved on undermining it. Thus at one Assembly it was ordered that bishops should fix on particular congregations, with the care of which they should be intrusted; at another, one bishop was brought to trial and deposed on slight grounds; the consecration of a second was obstructed; and a primate was enjoined to confine himself to the duties of an ordinary minister. At last, they went so far as to do the entire work themselves, so that parliament should have only to ratify what they had ordained: they modelled the practice, leaving the legislature only to establish it, and give it legality.

The new polity was incorporated in the second book of discipline, so called to distinguish it from from the first, which had been set up by Knox. So admirably had Melvil and his adherents contrived matters, that successive Assemblies had been employed in compiling this code during the administration of the vigilant Morton; and that dextrous statesman would have seen himself obliged to pronounce judgment on it very shortly, had he not resigned the regency: while it is believed that he would not have wanted the inclination, as well as the weight and authority, necessary to uphold the existing regimen. The presbyterian party, we may be well assured, were fully sensible of the advantage which the removal of the executive power, from his able management into infant hands, would give to their designs; and among the courtiers, those who had the greatest ascendancy over James found it their interest to stand well with the ministers. The young monarch, however, on its being first proposed to him to adopt the new discipline, did not comply: it was regarded as unfriendly to the royal authority, and of this James appears to have been aware. Still, the petitioners do not seem to have been discouraged, but pursued their schemes with undaunted perseverance. They felt confidence that their object could not be defeated by an executive power that had neither wisdom nor firmness, nor stability; and, relying on their own exertions and the public support, they did not despair of final success. It was to no purpose that James held out, commenced a set of harassing measures against the church, and caused enactments to be made in favour of the episcopal polity: he was compelled to yield at length; affected to be in good humour with the church; and, laying stress on its presbyterian badges, pronounced on it a high flown panegyric, of which the following was the memorable conclusion:

> ' " I praise God that I was born in such a time as in the time of the light of the Gospel,—to such a place as to be King of such a kirk, the sincerest kirk of the world. The kirk of Geneva keep Pasch and Yule: what have they for them? They have no institution. As for our neighbour kirk in England, their service is an evil said mass in English,—they want nothing of the mass but the liftings. I charge you, my good people, ministers, doctors, elders, nobles, gentlemen, and barons, to stand to your purity, and to exhort the people to do the same; and I, forsooth, so long as I brook my life and crown, shall maintain the same against all deadly." '

To render the discipline of such a church complete, in conformity to his own notions, he could no longer refuse; and accordingly, in the parliament which met on the 5th of June 1586, fourteen years after the agreement of Leith, an act was passed 'establishing the presbyterian form of church government, as administered by General Assemblies, synods, presbyteries, and sessions, defining the powers of these judicatories, reversing all acts inconsistent with this polity, and conveying to presbyteries the right of receiving presentations.'

Episcopacy was without difficulty engrafted on the system of Knox, but it was not found so easy to supersede the former, and to establish another in its stead; it was not removed without delay and much labour, and it endured repeated and varied attacks; while no power has yet been able permanently to subvert the structure which was substituted in its room, and which has stood its ground in defiance of the most formidable and reiterated efforts. Dr. Cook clearly intimates the causes of these curious phænomena, but does not enlarge on them as we think he ought; nor are they stated with sufficient distinctness and precision. We wished to have seen them fully and minutely analyzed; and, had this been done, the present would have been a finished work, a truly classic performance, of inestimable value. The ensuing reflections, however, are candid, liberal, and just, to the extent to which they go; containing several of the conceptions to which we allude, but somewhat, as we imagine, too loosely expressed:

'Thus was presbytery, which had long been struggling for the ascendancy, legally declared to be the constitution of the church of Scotland. Amidst all the intemperate zeal which occasionally marked the conduct of Melvil, and of the other active supporters of the discipline of Geneva, they displayed consummate talent, and admirable dexterity, in influencing the minds of men, and in taking advantage of whatever was calculated to promote the objects which they were solicitous to accomplish. Opposed by the executive power, which at one stage in the progress of the Reformation might probably have permanently established a modified system of episcopacy, they prepared for the contest which awaited them, by ingratiating themselves with the people, by professing what they really felt,—for it was the natural effect of their principles,—the warmest zeal for political freedom, and by unwearied efforts to impress upon those who listened to them the infinite importance, and the awful truths of religion. Still recollecting with horror the persecution of the Popish church, they shrunk from whatever seemed in the most distant manner allied to it; they preserved or disseminated the dread of Popery with an effect, which the former feelings of the community alone could have enabled them to produce; and being actually called to oppose the intrigues of men, who would have imposed on the kingdom the yoke of spiritual bondage, they procured full credit for their repeated and fervent assertions, that, unless the presbyterian discipline was sanctioned, the purity of the Protestant faith could not be preserved.'—

'The parliamentary sanction now given to the Book of Discipline was in the highest degree satisfactory to the ministers. It placed them in the situation which they had long been desirous to occupy; it gave them reason to hope, that, secured against opposition, they might now devote themselves to the spiritual concerns of the community; and it afforded to the King an opportunity of gaining their confidence, and, through this, the best wishes, and the steady loyalty of his people. Had he followed this gracious act, as he was prudently advised to do, by such a provision to the clergy as would have exempted them from the hardships of poverty; had he been careful to evince to them that he was sincerely attached to the Protestant religion, and that, whilst they laboured to defend it, they might depend upon his countenance, he would have identified their duty and their interest with the just exercise of his prerogative; he would have perceived that rough and severe censure, by which the ministers in their pulpits shocked his feelings and irritated his passions, daily softening, he would soon have

heard

heard inculcated manly and rational sentiments respecting what was due to the person and the office of the sovereign; and he might have anticipated, by nearly a century, that state of the presbyterian church which has existed since the Revolution, a state no less favourable to the constitutional rights of the King, than to the liberties of the subject.

'A deviation from this policy, he might have discerned, would, from the circumstances which had attended the triumph of the Presbyterians, be followed by opposition much more formidable than that which he had yet experienced.—It was apparent that presbytery had been interwoven with the religious principles of the great body of the people. Hence an attempt to subvert it could not fail to excite popular indignation, which no virtue in the members of a new establishment, or new excellence in that establishment itself, would be sufficient to remove, but which, cherished by those who were revered as the defenders of truth, might be expected to produce the most deplorable convulsions.

'Attention to these reflections will explain the events which have to be recorded in the account of the succeeding century, shewing that the vehemence which then was manifested, the systematic opposition to the measures of the court, the irrational and illiberal antipathy to every form of prelacy, and the persuasion that, without the extirpation of episcopacy, there could be no religion, or no liberty, were not the result of caprice or of momentary excitement, but were the precise consequences which an enlightened and philosophical mind might have anticipated from past events, taken in conjunction with that infatuated policy which, obstinately bent upon attaining its objects, paid no regard to the general laws that influence our nature, or to that experience which should have taught the sovereign, that in Scotland it was necessary long to follow, before it was possible to lead, the religious principles and views of the people.'

Assemblies busied in establishing the *jus divinum* of ecclesiastical polities, we may rest assured, would not be deficient in asserting their infallibility. Accordingly, we find one of them enacting that;

'"Forasmuch as, by imprinting and putting to the light works repugnant to the truth of God's word, or containing manifest error, the truth may be heavily prejudged, and the weak seduced from the truth; therefore the General Assembly, presently convened, have all in one voice given power to certain persons here named, conjunctly to visit and oversee all manner of books and works that shall be prepared to be printed, and to give their judgment thereupon, if the same be allowable and approved by the law of God or not; and they are to give their judgment and opinion thereupon by their subscription and hand-write, for relief of such as shall read such works."'

No sooner had James panegyrized the Kirk, and passed the act in favour of the presbyterian discipline, than he began in earnest to undermine that which had been so recently established. At the very next General Assembly, he procured visitors or commissioners of countries to be appointed, with powers nearly equal to those of bishops; and, in a parliament held not long afterward at Edinburgh, he caused an act to be passed 'ordaining that such pastors and ministers as his Majesty should at any time please to invest with the office, place, and dignity of a bishop, abbot, or other prelate, should at all time hereafter have vote in parliament, in the same way as any prelate was accustomed to have, declaring that all bishoprics presently vacant, or which might afterwards become vacant, should be given by his Majesty to actual preachers and ministers, or to persons qualified to become such, and who should pledge themselves that they would enter upon the ministry.' This he also forced a General Assembly held at Dundee to adopt. — During the contests and quarrels which this regulation occasioned between him and the ministers, he departed from Scotland to mount the throne of England; from which time, till near the close of life, he persisted in the same course, blending the most barefaced outrages on the Kirk with promises to maintain inviolate her constitution, down to the very moment in which a parliament held in 1609 'declared that his Majesty, by their advice, and with their express consent, restored and redintegrated the archbishops and bishops of the realm to their former authority, dignity, prerogative, privileges, and jurisdiction lawfully pertaining to them, especially to the jurisdiction of commissariats and administration of justice by their commissioners and deputies, in all spiritual and ecclesiastical causes controverted between any persons dwelling within their dioceses.' It appears that, when James was seated on the throne of England, an instantaneous light flashed on him, and he discovered that its church was the most perfect in the world; with which he became enraptured, renouncing that in which he was born and educated, shewing every symptom of hatred towards her, and never desisting from attempts, by all tyrannical measures, and by dint of persecution, to force her to an unwilling conformity to his new favourite.

Since it is to Andrew Melvil that Scotland owes, in a high degree, the form of her church-polity, it is natural that we should not pass over the closing account given of him in these pages; and, as the last scene of him in this kingdom is connected with the troubles in the latter part of James's reign, it may properly be introduced here. Having behaved indecorously before the council,

'He was *committed to the* custody of the Dean of St. Paul's, *who was commanded to* prevent any person from having access to him, and at convenient times to confer with him upon the points with respect to which he differed from the church. With this clergyman he remained for several months, soon after the expiration of which he was sent to the Tower; and a mandate was then issued to the Archbishop of St. Andrew's, and several other persons named in the commission, to supply his place as principal of the New College, in the University of that city, as he would no more return to that charge. He did, accordingly, never return. After languishing several years in the Tower, and in vain attempting, at the suggestion of some of the Scotish prelates, by a manly apology for his verses to obtain his freedom, he was permitted, upon the solicitation of the Duke of Boulogne, to accept the Professorship of Divinity in the Protestant University at Sedan, to which town he removed. About the last period of his life, little information has been transmitted. His health and his spirits were impaired by his sufferings; he felt the hardship of having been driven from his native country; he lamented the state of religion in Scotland; and after enduring much bodily anguish, he expired in the seventy-sixth year of his age, closing his active and interesting career under the influence of that piety by which he had been eminently distinguished.'

In James Melvil his nephew, often mentioned in this history, Andrew had an able and efficient coadjutor: but he died, suffering for the same cause, in banishment at Berwick.

'Of the virtues of this amiable man,' says Dr. Cook, 'abundant proof is afforded by the whole history of his life, and by the testimony even of those who did not adopt his sentiments. His uncle was formed for the times in which he lived; united to talents of a high order, and to most respectable literary attainments, an inflexible firmness, a keenness of temper, and an impetuosity of eloquence, which alarmed, and often overawed his enemies; but James Melvil, with a sound and enlightened judgment, combined the utmost candour, and the most engaging mildness of disposition; he shrunk from the jarrings of controversy, would have delighted in the quietness of tranquil times, and never, but when impelled by conscience, resisted the authority of his sovereign and the oppression of his government. At one period, he was regarded by the King with partiality, or with kindness; and had he been disposed to sacrifice his principles to ambition, he would certainly have been exalted to the highest situations in the church; but convinced that the tenets of his venerable relation were founded in Scripture, and that no blessing of this world can compensate for the loss of integrity, he remained firm in what he believed to be right, and was esteemed and revered by numbers who had not virtue to imitate the noble pattern which he exhibited.'

Charles, a devotee to Anglican forms, and instigated by Laud, persisted in the insane career of his father, and pursued his measures without paying any semblance of regard to the laws of the country or the feelings of its inhabitants. Enactments the most solemn, institutions the most sacred, practices long endeared to the people, the general will, and national independence, were made to give way before the breath of a monarch resident in another country, and swayed by foreign counsellors. In this fatal course, the infatuated prince persevered, till he united in opposition to his measures all classes of his subjects. His aggrandizement of the clergy excited the jealousy of the nobles; so considerable were the alterations introduced, that they equally shocked moderate Episcopalians and Presbyterians: patriots felt indignant at the little regard shewn to the laws and institutions of the state: persons of a manly turn beheld with an evil eye the introduction of foreign usages, which had nothing intrinsic to recommend them, and to which the nation was averse: reasoners took disgust at the imposition of forms the reverse of those which from choice had been adopted: those who were indifferent to religion resented compulsion: the interference with their ceremonies offended the prejudices of the multitude; and the enforcement of the ritual of a rival-people aroused national pride. Thus was an opposition raised which it was found impossible to withstand; and the proud fabric of ecclesiastical polity was subverted by that power in defiance of which it had been erected.—While ample justice is here done to the virtues which the Scotch ministers displayed in vindicating their rights, the woful misuse which they made of their triumph is not concealed. We believe that the author is well founded in ascribing their errors to the influence of the lure held out by the disaffected English; namely, that if the ministers would abet them, the whole kingdom would at no distant time submit to the ecclesiastical polity of the Kirk. To this cause, we apprehend, is to be ascribed the perverseness which the ministers displayed, the crimes which they committed, and the impolitic measures which they pursued on this occasion. Led astray by this delusive hope, they acted an unnatural part towards their conceding sovereign, threw off all regard for him, violated their allegiance, suffered him to be stripped of his crown and of his life, thus betrayed the public weal, and prepared for the subversion of the civil constitution of their country. The delinquencies, with which those ministers are in the present instance chargeable, are arraigned by Dr. Cook with wholesome severity; and he animadverts, in proper terms, on the pernicious errors under which they may be said to have laboured in all their proceedings: such as their attempts at spiritual domination, their demands of rigid uniformity, their persecuting zeal, their hostility to toleration, and their utter disregard of the rights of conscience.—If Dr. Cook is thus impartial towards his predecessors, it will hardly be supposed that any other parties, who figure in his history, meet with a different treatment: but it is a circumstance that would render credible the narrative itself, did not the established character of the author exclude all doubt, and were he not supported by the entire stream of history;—a narrative of horrors which it is to the honour of our nature that there have been men to endure, while it is to our indelible disgrace that there have been such as would inflict them.

The panegyric on the ministers of the Kirk at the Revolution is not in conformity with the accounts given by the author of the same body under the latter part of the reign of Charles I., and under Cromwell; and the description would seem better to apply to them such as they were soon to become than as they then were: for it must be owned that nothing could excel the stand which they made for their principles, the steadiness which they displayed in their support of them, or the fortitude and firmness with which they bore their sufferings. In his account of the two reigns which close the work, Dr. Cook is more concise than in the preceding parts; and we cannot but express our wish that he had continued his narrative on its original scale; since, heart-rending as is the recital, it teaches useful lessons, which many of us, we fear, have yet need to learn.

Our limits have precluded us from noticing several of the prominent excellences of this author. He has, however, one leading feature to which we must advert, viz. his warm attachment to the cause of civil and religious liberty. This is highly creditable to him as an individual; we rejoice to recognize the sentiment in an eminent divine of one of our established churches; and we hope that it is common to him with the venerable body of which he is an ornament. In the pages before us, he embraces every opportunity of inculcating this sacred principle, and of rendering it service; while he always takes due pains to shew how the contests of religion bear on it. He makes it clear that these contests engendered in the Scotch a love of liberty, formed them to the practice of it, and brought them to regard it as necessary to their well-being; and thus, by setting these altercations in their true light, he has given to them their merited importance and interest, and incredibly enhanced the value of his work. Equally does he demonstrate that the Reformation and civil liberty went hand in hand, while Popery was interwoven with despotism; and that the same was the case with prelacy and presbytery. He ascribes these associations, however, to causes purely accidental, not to any thing in the genius or the inherent nature of these two latter forms: but he establishes the fact beyond all dispute. In consequence of the same causes, he contends that the polity of the Kirk could not have been different from that which we see, without detriment to the civil rights of the subject. Many, and even King William, it is said, have wished that the same form of church polity had extended to the whole of the island: but perhaps the turn which events have taken has been more favourable to our mixed constitution, and has contributed more to that due tempering to which it owes its excellence. Let those, who regret that the churches of North and South Britain are differently constituted, reflect that the difference has given strength to the cause of religious liberty, countenanced its practice, and guaranteed its perpetuity; has taken from both established churches all pretences to infallibility; has rendered arrogance ridiculous; has left no room for a spirit of domination to shew itself; has afforded to each church additional motives for exertion; has made modest demeanour in each not only becoming but necessary; and has enforced on each the amiable practice of forbearance. The convocation of London cannot, with decency, anathematize the General Assembly of Edinburgh; that council cannot indulge in illiberality, which admits into its bosom the members of both churches; nor can that sovereign be a bigot, who has chaplains and other spiritual officers of each communion. It would, then, seem to be no disadvantage to this free empire, that Presbyterianism is established in the North, and Episcopalianism in the South. Far be it from us to enter into an invidious comparison between the two churches; which, as every appearance leads us to suppose, mutually respect and esteem each other: yet it is but just to observe that the kirk of Scotland, while it is the most economical, answers the purposes of an established church better than any other church in christendom.

We now dismiss this very important work; wishing it all the success which it deserves; and congratulating the able and learned author on the service which he has rendered to literature, to the religious community of which he is a member, and to the public at large. Professional men of his own church will deem it an invaluable present: but it will not be less prized by the more curious of their brethren of the South; while by every scholar, politician, and statesman in the United Kingdom, it will be perused with equal avidity.

Art. IX. *Journal of a Tour and Residence in Great Britain*, during the Years 1810 and 1811, by a French Traveller: with Remarks on the Country, its Arts, Literature, and Politics, and on the Manners and Customs of its Inhabitants. 2 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 2s. Boards. Edinburgh, Constable and Co; London, Longman and Co. 1815.

The travels of the Duke de Levis were noticed in our lxxivth volume, p. 476., and the translation of them was announced in volume lxxviii. p. 37. The "Letters from Albion," by a Prussian nobleman, also underwent lately (vol. lxxvii. p. 132.) our full examination. To these two noble authors, succeeds another foreign traveller in Great Britain: but he is anonymous; and we confess that we look on his asserted Gallic birth with some suspicion. A residence of 20 years in America, a considerable stay in England, and the society of an English wife, are stated, indeed, with considerable plausibility to account for that command of diction and completeness of delineation, in which, as well as in vivacity of remark and penetration of judgment, this writer is certainly superior to his predecessors; and which — at least the two former characteristics — render us so doubtful of the truth of his own description. Still, whether he be a Frenchman or an Englishman, his commentaries will amuse the native and instruct the foreigner.

About two years, it is said, were spent in England by the author, whose diary begins December 24. 1809, and ends November 20. 1811: in the course of which, interruptions of removal occur that afford leisure for expatiating dissertations. The journal includes a tolerably satisfactory and critical survey of the British country and its monuments, — of the manners, customs, and arts of the inhabitants, — and of the national politics and literature. Many illustrative engravings are also interspersed, which represent objects remarkable for picturesque beauty or local singularity. — The tour begins at Falmouth, and proceeds through Oxford to London; thence into Wales, to Liverpool, to the Lakes, to Edinburgh, and Glasgow; and back through Newcastle and Birmingham to London again: Norwich being almost the only important place which wholly escapes the range of this traveller's attention, or the reach of his inquiry.

The first impression of the metropolis is thus sketched.

'The inhabitants of London, such as they are seen in the streets, have, as well as the outside of their houses, a sort of a dingy, smoky look; not dirty absolutely — for you generally perceive clean linen, — but the outside garments are of a dull, dark cast, and harmonize with mud and smoke. Prepossessed with a high opinion of English corpulency, I expected to see everywhere the original of *Jacques Roast-beef.* No such thing; the human race is here rather of mean stature, — less so, perhaps, than the true Parisian race; but there is really no great difference; and I have met more than once with Sterne's little man, when, in turning round to help a child across the gutter, he saw with surprise a visage of fifty, where he expected to see one of five. The size of London draught-horses makes up for that of men; those which draw brewers' carts and coal-waggons are gigantic — perfect elephants! On the other hand, I have observed dwarf horses passing swiftly along the streets, mounted by boys, who appeared employed in carrying letters or messages. No armed watch, *guet*, or *marechaussée*, is ever met patroling the streets, or the highways; no appearance of police, and yet no apparent want of police; nothing disorderly.

'The western part of the town is terminated by three great contiguous public walks. St. James's Park, which belongs to the palace of that name, is planted in straight walks, which surround a meadow and piece of water, and have all the monotony and dulness of the old-fashioned avenues without their magnificence, the trees being low, and of a stunted growth. The Green Park is somewhat better. Hyde Park quite different, and three times as large as the other two together. It is an inclosure of above 400 acres, slightly uneven, having here and there groups of old trees, some of them of very large size and venerable appearance, but too thinly scattered, and leaving great spaces entirely naked. New plantations are making, but they unite ill with the old trees, and ought not to approach so near them. The water of a rivulet dammed up has been made to fill a little valley, forming a piece of water of good shape, and clear, called the Serpentine River; several projecting points of land and corresponding bays disguise its boundaries, and it is terminated by a good-looking stone bridge. The best trees of the park, mostly elms, grow near the Serpentine River. Kensington Gardens are connected with Hyde Park; carriages are not admitted; the circumference is about the same, that is, nearly three miles. An excess of trees is as conspicuous here, as the want of them in Hyde Park. The season is unfavourable, but the present impression of Kensington Gardens is that of a formal sort of wilderness.'

After a month's stay, the following well compressed description of the average bustle of the town in winter is given:

'In the morning all is calm, — not a mouse stirring before ten o'clock; the shops then begin to open. Milk-women, with their pails perfectly neat, suspended at the two extremities of a yoke, carefully shaped to fit the shoulders, and surrounded with small tin measures of cream, ring at every door, with reiterated pulls, to hasten the maid-servants, who come half asleep to receive a measure as big as an egg, being the allowance of a family; for it is necessary to explain, that milk is not here either food or drink, but a tincture, — an elixir exhibited in drops, five or six at most, in a cup of tea, morning and evening. It would be difficult to say what taste or what quality these drops may impart; but so it is; and nobody thinks of questioning the propriety of the custom. Not a single carriage, — not a cart are seen passing. The first considerable stir is the drum and military music of the Guards, marching from their barracks to Hyde Park, having at their head three or four negro giants, striking, high, gracefully, and strong, the resounding cymbal. About three or four o'clock the fashionable world gives some signs of life, issuing forth to pay visits, or rather leave cards at the doors of friends, never seen but in the crowd of assemblies; to go to shops, see sights, or lounge in Bond Street, — an ugly, inconvenient street, the attractions of which it is difficult to understand. At five or six they return home to dress for dinner. The streets are then lighted from one end to the other, or rather edged on either side with two long lines of little brightish dots, indicative of light, but yielding in fact very little; — these are the lamps. They are not suspended in the middle of the streets as at Paris, but fixed on irons eight or nine feet high, ranged along the houses. The want of reflectors is probably the cause of their giving so little light. From six to eight the *noise* of wheels increases; it is the dinner hour. A multitude of carriages, with two eyes of flame staring in the dark before each of them, shake the pavement and the very houses, following and crossing each other at full speed. Stopping suddenly, a footman jumps down, runs to the door, and lifts the heavy knocker — gives a great knock — then several smaller ones in quick succession — then with all his might — flourishing as on a drum, with an art, and an air, and a delicacy of touch, which denote the quality, the rank, and the fortune of his master.

'For two hours, or nearly, there is a pause; at ten a *redoublement* comes on. This is the great crisis of dress, of noise, and of rapidity — a universal hubbub: a sort of uniform grinding and shaking, like that experienced in a great mill with fifty pair of stones; and, if I was not afraid of appearing to exaggerate, I should say that it came upon the ear like the fall of Niagara, heard at two miles' distance! This crisis continues undiminished till twelve or one o'clock; then less and less during the rest of the night, — till, at the approach of day, a single carriage is heard now and then at a great distance.'

Since this accomplished traveller wields the pencil as well as the pen, and excels as a picture-critic, it will be interesting to hear his opinion of the state of the fine arts among us:

'The British Institution will certainly create a great emulation among artists; and those who have superior talents will be enabled to quit the sordid portrait, and to be historians and poets without fear of starving. I must own, however, that I have seen very few pictures there that were above mediocrity; bad design, — ignorance of the human form and anatomy, — colouring poor and purplish. The heads, however, are fine in general: and these striking countenances, thus starting out of the canvas, put me in mind of the man in "Le Tableau Parlant," who thrusts his living head through a hole in a picture. Landscapes of merit are much more common than historical pictures. There is more originality, — more knowledge of nature in this branch of art, — more *beau idéal*, — more poetry, here than in France.

'The exquisite perfection of English engravings had given me a corresponding idea of the art of painting; but this elder branch is much inferior to the other. Landscapes, especially, are engraved here with a degree of finish, — a softness, — a richness of colouring, if I might be allowed the expression, which it seems impossible to surpass. This art having become a great article of trade, furnishes an early reward to talents; bread first, and fame afterwards. The little proficiency made in the arts, the sciences, and all that requires much study, great labour, and sacrifices, by most of those who are born to an independent fortune, shews sufficiently that the first step in the career is urged by hard necessity.

'There is a species of composition, which has been brought here to a high degree of excellence, — subjects taken in common and modern life. The personages are not always boors, sailors, or soldiers, in camps and taverns, as in the Flemish school; — or shepherds and shepherdesses *à la Virgile*, — but real peasants or tradesmen, with their proper appendages, and placed in natural situations, interesting and characteristic, without caricature, and often with much dramatic effect. The British Institution has several good pictures in this style.'

On the freedom of the press we meet with acute remarks, one of which we will select:

'The consequence of this general publicity is, a sort of transparency of the body-politic, which allows you to see many wonderful, and some alarming natural processes: the labour of the stomach and of the intestines, and the suction of innumerable hungry vessels, carrying health and strength, or disease and death, in incessant streams of blood and humours, to every part of the body. Any derangement is, of course, observed immediately; and the cause, as well as the seat of the disorder, being obvious, the hand and the knife can penetrate, cleanse, and remove, without danger, under the guidance of the eye. A body so formed and constituted would have the chance of a long and healthy life, although it might not be a joyful one; and the mind appertaining to that body would, in all probability, acquire precisely that plaintive cast and habit of grumbling, so observable among the inhabitants of this fine and prosperous island.'

Harsh and in our judgment undeserved observations are made at p. 75. on the negligent attention of some medical men at the public hospitals in London. True it is, however, that, as the national character for humanity has risen high in consequence of the willing patronage of benevolent institutions;

tutions, it ought sedulously to be supported by those who undertake the interior management. Whatever be the motives, whether ostentatious or humane, which induce the faculty to attach themselves gratuitously to these temples of public charity, they cannot be permitted to bestow on them a careless or a hasty inspection: still less should the coldness of indifference or the displeasure of unkindness be ever suffered to afflict the patients.

At p. 184. it is asserted that Mr. Coke of Norfolk wanted Mr. Pitt to make him Lord Leicester, and, failing, became an oppositionist: whereas it is known that Mr. Coke sided originally with the coalition-ministry, and never applied to Mr. Pitt for any public dignity. Mr. Pitt gave the title of Lord Leicester spitefully elsewhere, conceiving that Mr. Coke wished for it at the hands of the Foxites: but we have always understood the fact to be that this *great commoner* has ever desired to retain that distinction, in preference to being hidden in the aristocratic crowd.

Some observations on our language, which occur at p. 231., may deserve selection:

'The sterility of the climate in point of fruits seems to have passed into their names: most of the smaller ones are composed of berry and some designative addition tacked to it. The names of birds partake of this sterility: — gold-finch, — bull-finch, — chaff-finch, — green-finch, and *all the finches of the grove.*

'Although poor in these respects, the English language is one of the richest in Europe. Johnson's Dictionary contains nearly 37,000 words, while the French Dictionary of the Academy has not quite 30,000. Johnson * has many obsolete words, but there

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'* Taking 100 pages of Johnson's Dictionary, some of each of the different letters, I have found

15910 substantives
10142 verbs
8444 adjectives
2288 adverbs

36784 words.

'The Dictionary of the French Academy, edition of Nismes, 1786, with Supplement, taking 118 pages in the same way, and calculating on 80 words for every page of the Supplement, gave 18716 substantives
4559 verbs
4803 adjectives
1634 adverbs

29712 words.

In both cases, words with different meanings have been taken in the account for one only. Many words in Johnson's Dictionary have twenty or thirty distinct senses; *to make* has fifty-nine senses, *to run* sixty-six. In the Dictionary of the Academy, a most wretched performance every way, the differences and shades of sense of each word are so inaccurately and absurdly marked, that it is impossible to ascertain the number of senses which each word is capable of bearing.'

are full as many now in use which he has not. The Spanish language is said to have 30,000, and the Italian 33,000. The English adopt new words more readily than the French do; their best speakers in Parliament introduce them sometimes, and they are naturalized on their authority. The language of the English court was half Norman French till Henry VIII. It did not acquire a homogeneous and regular form till Shakespeare and Bacon; and although it has been improved and enriched since that time, yet the style of Shakespeare is not old compared to other writers of the same period, — much less so than Sully and Montaigne's. To the multitude of words ending in *s*, the English owes that prevailing hissing sound which is remarked by foreigners. Opening Johnson's Dictionary at random, I have found generally three words in each page terminated in *ess*, making about 3000 words; and besides these, the third person singular of all verbs terminates in *s*; as also the plural and possessive case of all nouns.

'The general sound of the language is in other respects meagre and hard; it does not flow, but proceeds by jerks, and with a tone by no means harmonious and pleasing to the ear. The English themselves have no idea of that general effect; none can judge of it properly but those, who, not understanding the language, attend solely to the sounds; and I now speak of it from recollection of what I felt before the sense took up my attention, and before habit had familiarized my ear to the sound. The French language, under similar circumstances, appears, I understand, dull and inarticulate, wanting accent and elasticity, — and not sufficiently sonorous. Among the modern languages the Italian alone deserves to be called musical, — and perhaps the Spanish. The Russian and Swedish are said to have softness. The English, however, makes up for its poorness of sound by capacity and vigour; it is highly descriptive, and possesses a great range of expression. The French is eminently elegant, clear, and simple. The intricacy of our nicest feelings might be best described in the one, their depth and energy in the other; and the French has perhaps the advantage in treating didactic subjects. A comparative estimate of the two languages, word to word, and idiom to idiom, the summing up of their means, and an accurate return of their respective forces, would naturally produce a good dictionary of the two languages, which at present is not in existence. It would be a work to undertake in old age, when no livelier interest or pursuit remains; a daily occupation, — a quiet and durable sort of amusement, which you may be sure not to survive; the only friend and companion, perhaps, to solace your last years.'

The gaol at Chester is praised, and a plan of it is given for the use of distant countries: it appears to the author the best contrived prison and court-house which he had seen in the course of a peregrination comprehending France and North America.

Volume II. opens with a description of Edinburgh. A long dissertation is allotted to the Huttonian theory of the earth: but all these speculations, we suppose, must now give way to the discovery of Dr. Herschel, that planets begin their being in the form of *nebulous* matter, and consist at first of a vast egg of gas! The formation of a nucleus, which, being magnetic, is always of iron, gives a cometary structure to the entire nebule, and a tendency to move. It approaches different systems, and settles as a planet in one. This theory, having aërial origin for its principle, may be termed the theory of the Junonists.

We do not here find a sufficient local description of Edinburgh, which is one of the most singular and magnificent towns in Europe. The High Street is on the most colossal scale of any street in the world: it has the width of a market-place, though it is diminished into the proportions of a lane by gigantic houses of twelve and fourteen stories. The New Town, and many monuments, deserved a detailed account. We might conjecture that this part of the book had been formed by a native of Edinburgh; the writer is so indifferent to the material and so alive to the intellectual character of the city. — From the Huttonian theory, we travel to the political parties, the Royal Societies, the theatres, and the prisoners of war. Some singular marriages are criticized with apparently professional skill. This portion of the work displays more speculation and less observation than the preceding volume; and it is in consequence less entertaining. The air of Scotland seems to inspire the author with the metaphysical passion of its collegians; and he wastes in abstraction and hypothesis that attention which might have sufficed to discriminate and class the surrounding phænomena. We welcome his return to England, and to fact; — and we select some particulars of York:

'York is an old town, and of course very ugly, containing about 15,000 inhabitants. Its Minster is one of the wonders of England, 50 feet longer than Westminster Abbey, which is, I think, 520 feet. The main tower over the centre is heavy; the two lesser ones are much better; the rest of the exterior is light and beautiful. The interior is very striking indeed, and superior to any thing we have yet seen, as to boldness, lightness, and prodigious high finish of the carving, — quite sharp and *à jour*. The figures introduced are in the usual barbarous grotesque style. The outside carving, originally as highly finished, having been much injured by time, is now undergoing thorough repairs, or rather an entire new facing; the modern carving is fully equal to the old, and made like in colour by oiling the stones. Beautiful as the inside of the Minster undoubtedly is, I think it less striking than the inside of St. Paul's; the latter is something less in size, but its vast airy dome, and the wide area under it, produce a greater effect. The tower of a small Gothic church near the Minster is remarkably light and beautiful. The windows of the Minster are too large, and admit too much light.' —

'There is near York a retreat for lunatics, which appears admirably managed, and almost entirely by *reason* and kindness; it was instituted by the Quakers. Most of the patients move about at liberty, without noise and disorder, and by their demure and grave deportment shew they have not quite forgotten to what sect they belong. We observed, however, in a great garden or court, some men in broad-brim-hats, walking about in a hurried agitated manner, with their hands in their coat-pockets, where we found at last they were confined. The lowest only of the patients are allowed to be seen; for the Quakers recognize in practice some inequalities of rank. It is impossible, however, to blame those who wish not to expose the infirmities of their friends to the idle gaze of the curious. The mistress of the house is a good-looking, portly lady, lately married to the keeper, both Quakers. You cannot say of this couple, with Moliere, "*Du coté de la barbe est toute la puissance*;" for all the consequence and the talents seem here on the side of the lady, and her husband appears merely her deputy. The frame of the windows is of iron, which saves the appearance of grates. Some of the patients are allowed to go out of the premises, and even to town alone. The directress told us, that, having been indisposed in consequence of a fall, and some little dispute having arisen some time afterwards with one of the female patients, the latter said to her, "I am sorry to see that since thy fall thee hast not been quite *right*, and if it should last we shall be obliged to take care of thee!" We heard some other curious traits; I shall mention only the following. A young and stout female patient, displeased with one of the servants, threw her down on the floor, and holding her there said, "What should hinder me from strangling thee? I am mad; they could not hang me for it!"

'In fourteen years, 154 patients have been admitted; of which 73 have been cured, 24 have died (three by suicide), and 57 remain. There are more women than men. The most ordinary causes are love, religion, pride, and reverses in fortune; two of these causes apply more particularly to the sex, — the other two are equally divided. I have been told by a well-informed person, born a Quaker, that there are more instances of insanity among that persuasion than among other people; the rich particularly are most exposed to this calamity. Commerce and manufactures are nearly the only professions from which Quakers do not exclude themselves; but the sons of rich merchants, caring little about trade, and almost all kinds of amusements, the fine arts, and certain departments of literature, falling under the same interdiction, nothing remains but *ennui*, nervousness, and at last insanity. Dr. Johnson, who was well qualified to judge of mental maladies, said of one of his friends, "He would not have drowned himself if he had known how to hem a pocket-handkerchief." The circumstance of the Quakers building this lunatic asylum entirely for themselves, recalled to my mind what happened to me once in travelling through a back-settlement of America. Observing in the house of a settler an apparatus to distil spirits, I asked him how he could expect a sale for the liquor in so remote a situation? "Oh!" he answered, "it is only for family use." '—

'We were shown, at the Minster, gold-rings of tolerable workmanship, with stones in them, found in coffins of prelates, lately broken up; one had the date of 1410 upon it, another 1245. York was a considerable town in the time of the Romans. The fort was built by William the Conqueror, and the heavy tower, on a mound, is of much more remote antiquity.

'Over the gates of the town, and indeed at the entrance of most towns or villages, you see written a notice, "to vagrants, and other idle and disorderly persons; — that such as may be found in it will be proceeded against with the utmost rigour of the law;" that is to say, of the poor-laws, of which an account has been given.

'Land rents at the exorbitant rate of 7 or 8l. an acre near York, and a few miles farther, at 4 or 5l., but farmers complain, and some of them fail.'

An appendix occurs concerning Ireland; and a copious index is attached.

We recommend this work as superior in its kind. More than amusing, it is often fascinating; more than informing, it often reveals truth to the philosopher, in a fluctuating style, occasionally brilliant with antithesis and wit.

ART. X. *Ossian's Fingal,* an ancient Epic Poem, in Six Books, rendered into English Verse. By George Harvey. 8vo. pp. 247. 10s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

BEHOLD, gentle reader, in the volume now before us, an example of the benign influence of the goodly art of reviewing! We are indebted, Mr. Harvey tells us, for his version of Fingal, to a recommendation which certain of our brother-critics urged on Mr. Walter Scott, to take some subject in Macpherson's Ossian as the ground-work of a new poem; and Mr. Scott having been guilty of most culpable inattention to this exhortation, Mr. Harvey became anxious that so much good advice should not altogether be thrown away, harnessed his Pegasus to the empty car, bounded into the seat,

——— "ὑπὸ δὲ στέρνοισι κονίη
Ἵστατ' ἀειρομένη, ὥστε νέφος, ἠὲ θύελλα." Iliad Ψ.

Hard, therefore, will be the fate of this poet, if the same *literary* censors do not award him that chaplet for which they have encouraged him to contend. The critics might, indeed, advance in defence of a less favourable judgment two facts: 1st, that their advice was given to Mr. Walter Scott, and not to Mr. George Harvey; and, 2dly, that they recommended the foundation-stones of Macpherson's Ossian, not the bricks, joists, beams, floors, and all other materials of the aforesaid structure, to be by him employed for the said purposes. What weight should be given to any such justification, we will not pretend to say: but, for Mr. Harvey's sake, it is to be hoped that their *fiat* may render such reasonings altogether unnecessary.

If, however, a mere transposition of Fingal into verse were the object in question, Mr. G. Harvey might have been saved the trouble of writing, and we need not have had that of reading, the volume now before us. A version of Fingal, bearing no author's name in the title-page, was printed in Oxford for Fletcher in 1772; and another, by Mr. M'Donald, was published about seven years ago. Although the versification of the former was in many parts distinguished by great merit, it has shared the fate of most other anonymous poems of our own day; that of being consigned, when read, to some dark and dusty closet, instead of decorating the book-shelves in a smart new coat. From this destiny, neither its intrinsic worth nor the name of Ossian itself has preserved it; and, as we know not that a better fate has attended the labours of Mr. M'Donald, we do not wonder that Mr. Harvey appears to be wholly ignorant of the existence of either. The occasional similarities, as far as we have compared the anonymous and the present work, (which we do not pretend to have done throughout,) are not more than such as would necessarily occur to two persons making use of the same materials, and are not by any means frequent.

Those truths, which the fear of the potent arm and stout stick of Dr. Johnson could never elicit from Macpherson, if there were any concealment in the case, are little likely now to be cleared from the mystery which envelops them: but, although to those who admire Ossian, not so much for his age or name as for the more unalienable qualities of his writings, the question of their authenticity can be of only inferior interest, it is nevertheless observable that, when the agitation of this question gradually subsided, the estimation of the work itself, as far as we could judge from public symptoms, declined in a proportionable degree. That Ossian has many admirers in the study, nay some absolute votaries, it would be hardy to deny: but they constitute a very small portion of the readers of poetry; and with many even of these, the "ignotum *pro magnifico*" is a strong incitement to apply to this species of composition. Of all the poems known by the name of Ossian, that of Fingal is certainly best adapted to modern versification. The unity of epic action, as Dr. Blair has justly remarked, is strictly preserved throughout; and with such simplicity, as to fall within the observation not merely of the critical but of the ordinary reader. It has probably, altogether, less of tenderness and affecting incident than Temora, but it rises far above the latter in dignity and magnificence; while it possesses also that superior attraction to the majority of readers, a rapid succession of incident. Notwithstanding these advantages in Fingal, it would have been to us more agreeable if Mr. Harvey had turned his attention to the Temora, partly because the ground is as yet untrodden, and partly because he fails most when he attempts to rise highest. The appearance of the ghost of Crugal, at the commencement of the second book, will open a fair field of comparison between Mr. Harvey and the author of the oldest versification:

> ' From all his brother heroes far away,
> Beside a bubbling stream brave Connal lay;
> An aged tree above its branches spread,
> A mossy stone was pillow for his head.
> Shrill through the heath he heard the frequent sound,
> Of night's faint voices murmuring around.
>
> ' Here as alone the warrior slept, he dreamed
> A flaming torrent from the mountain streamed.
> High on the fiery beam, a form he spied,
> Resembling Crugal, who that morn had died;
> Striving with Swaran he received a wound,
> That laid him breathless on the bloody ground.—
> Wan as the setting moon his face appears,
> Formed of a misty cloud the robe he wears,
> Like two decaying flames appear his eyes.
> And a deep wound within his bosom lies.
>
> ' The mighty Connal first the silence broke,
> And to the semblance of his friend thus spoke.
> ' Crugal, brave Dedgal's son! why com'st thou here
> So pale and sad; famed hunter of the Deer?
> Fear never yet was known to bleach thy cheek,
> Son of the hill! then what disturbs thee, speak.'—
> Dim and in tears the phantom made a stand,
> And over Connal stretched his pallid hand.
> His feeble voice he raises to reply,
> Faint as the winds through Lego's reeds that sigh.'

The anonymous versifier will not fear the present competition:

> " Far from his friends, extended on the ground,
> While dusky night and silence reigned around,

Beside the stream, that rolls its winding way
O'er the lone heath, the dauntless Connal lay.
A mossy stone sustained the warrior's head,
Above an oak its shady branches spread.

"He heard from far the shrieks of night arise;
A sudden splendour fired the gloomy skies,
Thro' the void air he saw the meteors stream,
And swift-descending on the ruddy beam,
Young Crugal's image met his wondering sight,
Pale as the setting moon's reflected light:
His visage shone, and spreading wide behind
His cloud-form'd robes flew streaming to the wind,
Like flames expiring his red eye-balls glared,
Dark was the wound that in his breast appeared.

"The hero thus the shadowy form addresst:
Alas! what sorrow racks my Crugal's breast?
Pale is thy face—not thus deprest with fear,
Didst thou, brave warrior, in the fight appear.

"Awhile, with tearful eyes he seem'd to stand
In silent grief, — then wav'd his pallid hand,
And soft, as breezes o'er the waters sigh
Of reedy Lego, faintly made reply."

The parallel between Homer and Ossian has been drawn more than once, and by writers of acknowleged ability in critical disquisition. It appears to us that their style of comparison is more nearly allied than any other single point that could be adduced in support of this similarity. Indeed, that these embellishments should be drawn from such objects, as are presented to persons in rude and uncivilized ages, is a necessary consequence of the epochs in which those persons are presumed to have lived: but, in adverting to this similarity, we allude less to the immediate subjects of comparison, than to the mode of introducing and applying them; and the rapid succession of these poetical illustrations, and the conciseness with which they are expressed, are stronger indications of the truth of the parallel to which we have referred, than the sources whence they are derived. Few passages will convey a better exemplification of this remark than the well-known battle in the fourth book:

"The din of arms arose, as waters roar,
Loud foaming, swelling to the rocky shore.
Man rush'd on man: their shields and helms resound,
The splinter'd javelins strew the purple ground.
As hammers on the burning iron ring,
When from each blow the fiery sparkles spring,
So rung their arms; and from each mighty stroke
The riven steel in sudden lightning broke.

"Like Ardven's whirlwind rushing thro' the plain,
The son of Morni strew'd the fields with slain;

* * * * * *

"As fallen stones from rock to rock rebound;
As axes in the echoing forest sound;
In broken peals as bursting from on high,
The rolling thunder shakes the vaulted sky;
Our blows resounded — death succeeded death,
And our proud foes lay gasping on the heath.
Loud, as on Inistore's resounding coast
Foams the swoll'n main; the chief of Lochlin's host
Rush'd fierce on Morni's son."

The preceding spirited lines are from the older versification of Fingal; and we will not injure Mr. Harvey's feelings by placing his own in contrast with them. Indeed, by comparison with the older work, the one before us sinks very low; and we cannot qualify this criticism as we might wish, by divesting ourselves of the invidious task of parallelism and examining it wholly on its own merits. Mr. Harvey tells us that he versified Fingal for his amusement, and we believe him; since a carelessness runs through the whole of his performance, of which few persons would willingly have incurred the charge, had they written for the meed of public approbation. He has fortunately sprinkled a sufficient number of spirited lines through his volume, to allow us to consider his failure as the result of inattention rather than inability; and we would have cheerfully quoted some one portion to have induced the reader to form a more favourable judgment than he probably will do from these remarks, but that, in Mr. Harvey's very best passages, instances of meanness of expression occur which would have perverted our kindest intentions.

ART XI. *A Tour through some Parts of Istria, Carniola, Styria, Austria, the Tyrol, Italy, and Sicily*, in the Spring of 1814. By a young English Merchant. 12mo. pp. 268. 7s. Boards. Gale and Fenner. 1815.

How goodly, how refreshing, to the sight of a journalist is a small book! "I have not time to write you a short letter," said an epistolary friend to his correspondent, "accept therefore an almost immeasurable effusion." This is truth itself. To store up, to digest, to condense, to arrange with due regard to light and shade, to express a thought or describe a scene at once in the closest and the clearest language, requires more time, more power, and more perseverance, than fall to the lot of many. Though diffuseness, however, is the bane of English prose, conciseness is not always a symbol of excellence, as we may prove by the example before us. The brevity of this volume results not so much from *condensation* as from *absence* of thought; and, if this book be little, it contains little.

The errata are so numerous, and the yet grosser errata substituted as corrections of their primitives, that we might imagine the author really to value them as fine thoughts, and not as blemishes. Thus we have the river *Bauhiloca* (by way of an Italian river) corrected to *Bacchiloca*, and this latter we suppose stands for *Bacchilione*; *lusanta Cruce* is corrected to *lusanta Croce*, which we suppose is intended for *La Santa Croce*; and *Flora giosee*, to *Flora giosce*, which again is intended for — what? *Puzzola*, we suppose, is for *Pozzuoli*, i. e. *Puteoli*. *Lublicius*'s bridge means, no doubt, a bridge built by that unheard-of personage called *Lublicius*. — An estimate may be formed of this traveller's knowledge of Latin hexameters from the following, p. 226.:

> ' " *Mantua me genuit, Calabri rapuere, tenet me nunc*
> *Parthenope*, &c." '

and of his Italian by almost every word which he ventures to quote, and by two sonnets transcribed by him and printed under his direction at pages 166. and 167., which bring to a focus all the peculiar beauties of this ' young English merchant.'

We will not quarrel with the author's account of his voyage from Malta to Trieste, and thence to Vienna. He passed through a country fertile in itself, and tenanted by a happy, cleanly, prosperous, and healthy peasantry: — this is his own account: — in his route he saw nothing but abundance, smiling nature, and man disposed by the acquisition of comforts and almost luxuries to enjoy her smiles. Some four years ago we had an opportunity of making the same remark in France; and even after the reverses which that country had sustained, Mr. Birkbeck, with a candour that does honour to his sense and his researches, confesses that the peasantry of France from Dieppe to the Pyrenees, and thence by the westward route back again, possessed more positive enjoyment, and more means of a healthy and invigorating life, than that of any nation which he had seen, or of which he had read. We speak not of the capital, but only of the peasantry,—of the mass; and they were better clothed and fed than any of their own rank under the sun. The present traveller remarks in his route to Vienna, and thence to Salzburgh, the cleanly and happy appearance of the country-people: but, viewing all objects with a mercantile eye, he would propose to change this happy state of things, dependant on the certain returns of a rich and grateful soil, into trade, which is precarious, and to a manufacturing life, which is unhealthy and immoral. Indeed, to prove how precarious the system is, we have only to read the author's *night-thoughts*, for they are gloomy enough, on seeing a manufactory at a little distance from Vienna:

> 'Several grounds for printing cottons and spinning manufactories lie in appropriate situations at some miles distance round the neighbourhood of Vienna. They have been brought to such perfection, that, in a very short time, the Austrians, indeed I may say, all the Continent, will have no further occasion for the assistance of England, in supplying them with articles of clothing. They are at present only deficient in cotton-spinning, not being able to manufacture the *high numbers*, as they are called; and in printing they have hitherto had to contend with the price of drugs, as the most necessary and costly were obliged to be smuggled from England or countries in amity with England; but these difficulties are only momentary. The one will be overcome by practice; the other will be soon, if it be not already overcome. I blush to think that Englishmen are at the head of most of these concerns. In point of execution, the prints far exceed any thing which the English manufacturer has produced. The buildings which have been erected for these purposes, and the encouragement given the proprietors by the government, appear formidable enemies for Britain to contend with. If the Austrians once obtain capital, they may be induced to cultivate foreign trade from their port of Trieste.'

The following lines, however, appear to put the traveller in good humour: 'they struck me,' he says, 'as being very neat.

> '"*Volat hora, sine morâ.*"
> "*Sol celer est, ut sole tamen velocior hora,*
> *Hora stetit nunquam, sol aliquando stetit.*"'

It should appear, from a remark at p. 100., that 'there is something singularly neat and national in countries in which the men no longer wear the broad-brimmed hat, or stick the feather or bit of green cloth in it;' and in which 'the women sometimes have a thick woollen cap like a mop, or a common round hat, and prefer red stockings.'

So much for the author's German tour. We abstain from crossing the Alps with him; and indeed, having lately passed them under the powerful escort of Mr. Eustace, we are fearful of trusting ourselves to the unlettered guidance of a mercantile youth. — By means of a directory or two, he manages to hobble about Rome and Naples, abusing the people, and in course unable to appreciate the works of their ancestors. At Rome he visits the house of Pontius Pilate. In page 254., when sailing from Naples, he is told by some person that one Virgil was of that city; and in a fine enthusiasm he 'fancied Eolus had bagged up his winds for not putting Virgil in his pocket when he intended to make this tour, for he was then in a situation to have read him to advantage.' Shall we be forgiven for conjecturing that here also the printer has been in fault, and that for Virgil we should read *Dryden's Virgil?*

ART. XII. *An Authentic Narrative of the Invasion of France in* 1814. By M. de Beauchamp, Author of the History of the late War of La Vendée, &c. &c. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 731. 1l. 1s. Boards. Colburn. 1815.

WE were lately perusing a criticism by a brother-reviewer of Paris, in which, after having lamented the strange mixture of subjects undertaken by a particular author, he gravely added that "this was a sure way to be *médiocre en tout.*" He might in his gloomy humour have passed a similar animadversion on M. de Beauchamp; whose ambitious mind at one time delineates the war of La Vendée, and at another takes its flight across the Atlantic to relate the wonders of Brazil *. We are unluckily not gifted with the power of following him through such distant regions; and we cannot help considering this impatience to grasp the literary records of the east and the west as something like the scheme of his late Imperial master to extend the dominion of France to the walls of Moscow. In our humble judgment he would stand a better chance for a favourable reception with the public if he were contented to write on half the number of subjects, and at somewhat less than half his present length. He has found means in the work before us to fill two octavo volumes with the transactions of a few months; and, though these transactions were certainly of great importance, they are already known to most of our readers through the medium of the daily vehicles of intelligence.

One of the first questions should be whether M. de B. compensates for this extra demand on the pockets and attention of the public by throwing any new light on his subject; and to this inquiry, as far as our means af examination go, we must answer in the negative. We have taken pains to compare with previous reports the accounts given of the most important actions of the campaign of 1814, (such as the battle of La Rothière on the 1st of February, that of Champ Aubert on the 10th, and that of Laon 10th March,) without having the satisfaction to discover any thing either new in the information or commendable in the manner of stating it. Indeed, we have seen nothing in any part of the book that would not have occurred to a recorder of the conversations of the Paris *coteries*, or to any industrious compiler from the news-papers. If we look for the solution of a point of delicacy and intricacy, such as that of the Chatillon-negotiation, we shall find that M. de B. never doubted (pp. 259. 380.) that the allies were fully disposed to make peace with Bonaparte; as if dear-bought experience had passed with them for nothing. He is equally wide of probability in estimating (p. 227.) the impression produced in Paris by the check given to Blucher's troops in the second week of February; and it is surprizing that any writer, after having perused such a number of documents, could take up the notion (p. 263.) that the allied sovereigns considered their situation at that time as critical. Had such been their view of it, would they have ventured to advance to Paris in the end of March, leaving Bonaparte in their rear. Another absurdity, equally glaring, is the assertion (p. 261.) that the allies demanded at Chatillon the occupation of Paris until the adjustment of a definitive treaty.

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* See the *Histoire du Brézil,* by M. de Beauchamp, lately published at Paris in 3 vols.

Still, however deficient M. de Beauchamp may be in accuracy, he is by no means incapable of exciting the attention of his reader; his assertions being always confident, and his composition in general fluent and animated. The following passages relate to circumstances less generally known in England than in France; which occurred at the close of the year 1813, when Bonaparte made an appeal to the nation to stand forwards in defence of its independence:

'The invasion was proclaimed, and the Legislative Body placed their entire confidence in the upright men who composed the extraordinary committee. After a thousand impediments had been thrown in their way, the committee made their report on the 28th of December, through their organ M. Laisné. It was most luminous and moderate throughout, and contained the following passages, which are worthy of figuring in the annals of the nation.

' "If the declarations of the foreign powers were fallacious — if it were their object to enslave us — if they meditated the dismemberment of the sacred territory of France, it would be requisite to carry on a national war for the purpose of averting such calamities. But the more completely to effect this grand movement, by which an empire is to be preserved, is it not desirable to unite the nation and the monarch by closer ties?" —

' "When that Prince, (Louis XIV.) to whose name history has added the epithet of great, wished to rouse the energy of his people, he revealed to them all that he had done to effect peace, and his noble confidence was not misplaced.

' "In order, therefore, that the allied powers may no longer accuse France and the Emperor of wishing to preserve too extended a territory, the preponderance of which they seem to fear, will it not be an act of real greatness to confute and convince them by a formal declaration?

' "It is not for us to suggest the words, which will resound throughout the world; but in order that this declaration may have a salutary influence on foreign powers, and make the desired impression upon France, is it not desirable that it should announce the promise of only continuing the war for the independence of the French nation, and the integrity of its territory? Will not such a declaration carry with it irresistible conviction throughout Europe?

' "If after this, when the French empire faithfully adheres to the liberal principles, which the heads of the European nations proclaim as all they wish, the obstinacy of the enemy should still force them to a just and necessary war for national independence, France will know how to call forth, in the maintenance of her rights, the energy, union, and perseverance, of which she has heretofore displayed such brilliant examples.

' "These means will be efficacious, if the French are persuaded that Government only aspires to the glory of peace — they will be so if the French are convinced that their blood will only be shed to defend their country, and protecting laws. But the consolatory words, peace and country, will resound in vain, unless the institutions are supported, which promise the benefits of the one and the other.

' "It appears, therefore, indispensable to your committee, that when Government shall propose the measures deemed most expedient for the safety of the State, his Majesty shall be, at the same time, solicited to maintain the entire and constant execution of the laws which guarantee to the French the rights of liberty, security, property, and the free exercise of their political privileges." —

' A motion was immediately made that this report should be printed, and an animated, or, more properly speaking, violent debate ensued on this proposition in a secret committee. The party of the court, however, could only muster a feeble force, and the resolution to print the report was carried by a large majority. The next day it was again decreed at a public sitting, in spite of the manœuvres of the President, and the court champions. Thus the extraordinary committee, and the Legislative Body itself, appeared to have obtained a complete triumph, when all at once, on the 30th of December, the hall of the sittings was suddenly closed and guarded by soldiers. —

' The sage propositions, and decorous representations, which had been suggested to the extraordinary committee by the purest patriotism, were considered by Napoleon and his ministers as an attack upon Imperial authority.

'Napoleon decreed the adjournment of the Legislative Body, and the suppression of the printed report as inflammatory.—

'On the 1st of January, he attacked the representatives of the nation from the throne in a speech full of asperity, reproaches, and menaces—a speech, which was unconnected, incoherent, and in short an irrefragable proof of disordered intellects.

'After having declared to the assembled deputies that he had caused the report of the committee to be suppressed, he stated that a twelfth part of the Legislative Body consisted of bad, factious citizens; that the members of the committee belonged to the number; that their organ M. Laisné, was a traitor; and that their object evidently was to blacken him in the eyes of the nation. He then added with vehemence: "You are not the representatives of the nation, but of the departments. I was fixed upon to mount this throne by millions of Frenchmen—and what is this throne? Wood, covered with velvet. *The throne is myself;* I am the sole representative of the people. If I listened to you, I should cede more to the enemy than he demands of me. You shall have peace in three months, or *I will perish.* I am at the head of the nation, because the constitution of the state ordains it. If France wanted another constitution, I would tell her to look for another monarch. Yes, I am lofty, because I am courageous—I am lofty, because I have achieved great exploits.—Return to your occupations, and if there be found one among you, who causes the report to be printed, I will insert the document in the Moniteur, with notes digested by myself. Supposing that I have done wrong, it is not for you to reproach me publicly. France needs me more than I need France."'

The share of attraction possessed by this book, in point of composition, makes it additionally incumbent on us to put our readers on their guard against the looseness and inaccuracy of many of the allegations. M. de B. is not without talents: but, at the rate at which he goes on, he will bring himself to be classed with those half-famished scribes who compile for a Paris-bookseller at the rate of one or two guineas a sheet; and whose object is to make exactly that kind of impression on the public which may transport into the pockets of their employers a reimbursement of their expences, with a profit. As long as book-making is exercised on abridgments, or index-work, we have no disposition to find fault with it: but the case is very different when a plausible writer comes forwards with the high-sounding name of historian, and lays claim (preface, p. 7.) to the credit of extensive and impartial research. 'So great, indeed,' says M. de B., 'has been the mass of authentic information thus acquired, that I can confidently announce my publication as the most exact and complete detail of the great events connected with this invasion, which has been submitted to the public.'

Should our censure appear too severe, we have merely to request our readers to make a reference to the account of any particular event on which they happen to have gained information from another source. Or, if they do not possess means of this kind, let them turn to any topic requiring attentive investigation, such as (vol. ii. p. 128.) Bonaparte's intended march on the rear of the Austrians, or (vol. ii. p. 299.) the distribution of Suchet's troops on their return from Catalonia, and decide whether M. de B. has performed any other part than that of a mere narrator of every-day-reports. On one occasion, he was very near paying severely for his hasty and superficial mode of writing; a verdict being given against him at Paris for more than 400l. sterling, at the suit of a gentleman whom he had accused of detaining Col. St. Simon in his journey from Paris to Toulouse when charged with the intelligence of the abdication of Bonaparte. An unhappy delay somewhere caused, it is well known, the melancholy bloodshed in the battle (10th April) at Toulouse: but the person accused was entirely innocent of the detention, and acted a generous part in remitting to M. de Beauchamp the damages which were awarded by the court.

We have been the more minute in our animadversions on the present occasion, because it has been deemed worth while to bring this production before the English public in a translation. Unluckily, no pains have been taken in the version to correct the defects of the original; and, in fact, they are aggravated by a number of ridiculous errors in the printing: such as (vol. i. p. 33.) *triumphirate;* (p. 120.) *Meresnier* for *Meusnier;* (vol. ii. p. 20.) *Boulogne* for *Bayonne,* &c. All this seems to indicate a disposition to consult economy at the expence of accuracy, and to publish on a calculation of the bulk of a book; a plan which, we are confident, will never be found successful with English readers. The true method in deciding on the expediency of a translation is to look to one of two things; the intrinsic value of the original work, or the ability of the translator to retrench its exuberances and to confer value on it. In the former case, the task of translation is easy; it requires merely a reasonable share of time and attention: but, in the latter, it demands a previous familiarity with the subject, the power of supplying deficiencies, and judgment to retrench all that is redundant or misplaced. Such liberties have as yet been seldom taken, but they are evidently legitimate when we exhibit a book in a different language; and the judicious adoption of them would have the effect not merely of sparing the public much useless trouble, but of conferring respectability on the task of translating. To the calculating book-vender, we should beg leave to add the important hint that, without such precautions, a version from a language so familiar as French is to a great part of the community will seldom be found productive in a pecuniary sense.

Art. XIII. *Memoir of the Queen of Etruria*, written by herself, and *An authentic Narrative of the Seizure and Removal of Pope Pius VII.*, on the 6th of July 1809; with genuine Memoirs of his Journey, written by one of his Attendants. Translated from the Italian. 8vo. pp. 180. 7s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1815.

If these papers be not remarkable on the score of interest, or of elegance of composition, they seem fully intitled to the character of authenticity. In the first mentioned, a daughter of the late king of Spain, Charles IV., relates in desponding terms her various mortifications since her marriage, at the early age of fourteen, with a son of the Duke of Parma. The young couple lived during seven years at Madrid, but left it in 1801; when it suited Bonaparte's schemes to transfer them to Italy with the new title of King and Queen of Etruria: though here they found themselves little else than nominal governors, the French troops remaining either in their territories or in the vicinity. The young king, who had always been weakly, died in 1803; and in 1807 even the semblance of government was taken from his widow, her territory being ceded by Spain to France. Next came the famous arrangements at Bayonne; in which Bonaparte imagined that, by laying hold of the royal family of Spain, he was making sure of that country, and advancing at full speed to the sovereignty of the Continent. The Queen of Etruria was now transferred to the neighbourhood of Paris, and afterward sent to Nice; where, having attempted to open a correspondence with England, she was put under a military guard, then taken to Rome, and shut up in a convent during two years and a half. In this confinement, her principal relief was an occasional visit from her royal parents, who were likewise at Rome, and in the care of her infant-son. Her release took place after the campaign of 1813.—The narrative has the effect of exciting our pity for the fair writer, but shews her to be quite a stranger to political views, and occupied either with domestic details or with such trifling considerations as the allowance for her housekeeping, the care of her servants, &c.

The account of the seizure and removal of the Pope is somewhat more interesting, and relates very faithfully the particulars of this cruel violation of the respect due to age and unimpeached integrity. Bonaparte, finding that he could neither frighten nor bribe his Holiness into a surrender of the rights of the Papal Chair, instructed the commander of the French garrison at Rome to seize his person and carry him into France. This measure was accomplished on the 6th of July 1809, by a night-attack on the palace; a number of soldiers entering by ladders, and securing all the attendants of the Pope. Having penetrated into the inner apartments, the commanding officer, General Radet, once more called on the Holy Father for a renunciation of the temporal dominion of the states of the church:

'The Pope, keeping his seat, answered with a mild and serene air, "I cannot:" to which the General replied, "If your Holiness will make this renunciation, I doubt not that all matters will be accommodated, and that the Emperor will treat your Holiness with all possible consideration." Then the Holy Father raising himself on his feet, with an air of majesty and authority, as if he, at this moment, remembered that he was a prince, and vicar of Jesus Christ, rejoined, "*I cannot: I must not; I will not. I have promised before God, to preserve to the Holy Church her possessions, and never will I fail in the oath which I have taken to maintain them.*"'

An immediate order to depart was now given. The journey exhibited nothing remarkable; the French hurrying the Pope, so as to leave the inhabitants at the places of stoppage no time to surround or to recognize their spiritual father It became necessary, however, to wait at Grenoble for orders from Paris; and there, in spite of all the impediments on the part of the officers of government, the Pope had an ample opportunity of witnessing the attachment of the natives.

'From the very first day of his arrival in this city, so vast a multitude flocked from all the adjacent country, to behold the supreme Pontiff, and kiss his feet, that it became necessary to devise means for giving safe vent to this pious ardour. So that, at last having fixed upon a convenient spot in an adjacent garden, where the general desire might be accomplished without danger, several hours were afterwards devoted to the reception of the crowds that poured in from all quarters. The same method was observed, during ten succeeding days, in the presence of a sufficient number of gens-d'armes, to keep the people in subjection; who, silently, one after another, enjoyed the single satisfaction of kissing his feet.'

On being informed of the disposition of the people, Napoleon judged it expedient to remove the Pope from among them, and ordered his return to Nice and Savona.

'A few miles from Nice there is a long bridge over the river Varo, which separates the states of France from those of the royal house of Savoy, so rudely constructed, that travellers are obliged to dismount from their vehicles, and pass over it on foot, for fear of accidents. The Pope himself was constrained to adopt the usual practice, and, under a scorching sun, himself oppressed by fever, to alight from his coach, and walk to the other side of the bridge, together with the rest of the party; for which there was no remedy.

'Instantly on alighting a most moving spectacle presented itself. An immense multitude had already assembled; not as before, along the roads, in disorder and hurry, the smith leaving his iron red hot at the anvil, the labourer half naked, with his implements of husbandry on his shoulder; but all observing the utmost decency and order, and distinguished from each other by their several ranks and stations in life. There were ecclesiastics dressed in the habits of their order, noblemen with their illustrious devices, merchants in their proper costume, artificers in their more simple attire. All prostrated themselves on the ground at the same moment, and raised their hands to heaven, pronouncing words of filial reverence, and calling, as with one voice, "Holy Father, bestow your blessing upon us! (*benedicite! benedicite!*)"'

When he had received intelligence of the Pope having reached Savona, Bonaparte deemed it proper to alter his behaviour, and affected to treat his Holiness with liberality; providing for him a splendid residence, and ample allowances for his table; and accompanying this step by the recall and pretended disgrace of those who had hitherto treated the Pope with harshness. All this was in the hope of gaining him over to the views of Napoleon: but Pius VII., though fatigued with long travelling, and bent down with years, was as little to be moved by flattery as by threats; and he issued, from under the eye of his French superintendants, the most free and spirited instructions to the subordinate officers of the church. Bonaparte then resumed once more his severe treatment, and removed from the Holy Father his confidential attendants. The writer of this little narrative being of the number, he was obliged to close his relation at this period: but our readers are apprized that the Pope, when carried in 1812 into the heart of France, received all Bonaparte's insidious overtures with the same invincible courage, and, on the approach of the allied armies, met the reward due to so bright an example of fortitude and fidelity.

This sketch is evidently the production of an eye-witness, who, if not capable of presenting general views to his readers, seems at least scrupulous in stating nothing that did not pass under his observation.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For APRIL, 1816.

POETRY.

Art. 14. *Moscow*, a Poem. By Mrs. Henry Rolls, Author of "Sacred Sketches from Scripture History." 8vo. 1s. 6d. Law and Whittaker. 1816.

This little poem is preceded by an introduction of great modesty, in which the fair author laments that her theme 'has not been attempted by any of those superior poets who adorn this happy island.' We have seen in manuscript a burlesque description of the march from Moscow by Mr. Southey: but that *jeu d'esprit*, if published, would not interfere with the more serious view of the subject which Mrs. Rolls has taken. Her lines are feeling and patriotic, and generally correct: but do we rightly comprehend the *pregnant* meaning of the term in page 22.?

> 'Here the fond husband hides his *childing wife*;'

and in page 28. we should be glad to accommodate the disagreement between such old friends as the verb and the pronoun:

> 'True to that arm *thou deemed* outstretched to save,
> Dauntless *thou past* through famine, sword, and wave.'

Again they are at variance in page 30.:

> 'When ebb'd that tide, *thou raised* the sparks of strife,
> *Fann'd* the faint flame, and *gave* it strength and life!
> *Thou called* for heroes, and the soldiers came,' &c.

Art. 15. *Alastor*; or, The Spirit of Solitude; and other Poems. By Percy Bysche Shelley. Crown 8vo. pp. 101. Baldwin, and Co. 1816.

We must candidly own that these poems are beyond our comprehension; and we did not obtain a clue to their sublime obscurity, till an address to Mr. Wordsworth explained in what school the author had formed his taste. We perceive, through the "darkness visible" in which Mr. Shelley veils his subject, some beautiful imagery and poetical expressions: but he appears to be a poet "whose eye, in a fine phrenzy rolling," seeks only such objects as are "above this visible diurnal sphere;" and therefore we entreat him, for the sake of his reviewers as well as of his other readers, (if he has any,) to subjoin to his next publication an *ordo*, a glossary, and copious notes, illustrative of his allusions and explanatory of his meaning.

Art. 16. *A Year in Canada*; and other Poems. By Ann Cuthbert Knight. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1816.

The readers of modern poetry are now so accustomed to tales and stories, that, instead of relishing five cantos of mere picturesque description, they will be apt to inquire whether a year spent in Canada has furnished no anecdotes or adventures worth recording; and they will desire a few animated groupes to enliven this fair writer's trans-Atlantic landscape. Still, the poem now before us is respectable for the correctness of its language, and the seeming accuracy of the delineations which it contains.

Art. 17. *Poems and Odes on Various Subjects.* By a Student of the Honourable Society of the Inner Temple. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

" A beardless cheek, and a warm love of words," (ἀχνους παρεια, τῶν λογων δ' ἐρως θερμὸς,) impelled the present writer, as his motto from the Greek of Gregory Nazianzen informs us, to compose the poems here given to the public. In the preface, indeed, we are farther informed that *his friends*, having heard him read his compositions, persuaded him to undergo critical examination. This is not a very novel plea, but we shall for this time suffer it to pass; only requesting the author to consider any thing which we may say of his verses as a compliment to the judgment of his friends, or the contrary.

We begin with ' An Ode' intitled ' Contemplation.' What *can* be the *earthly* meaning of it, we are at a loss to guess; and as to its *heavenly* signification, not possessing the key of Emanuel Swedenborg, we are still more unable to form any conjecture. Our readers shall try their fortune. May they be successful!

' O Contemplation! offspring of the mind!
   Born where Serenity 'mid Angels blooms,
My thoughts connect, my lowly numbers bind
   With thy pure chaplets fragrant with perfumes:
Bright, as the beam that smiled upon the birth
   Of Him, whose blood-drop healed the sting of Death.
   Before whose Spring of love the starry wreath
In buds of glory hung, and hailed our favoured Earth.

' O Power of harmony, with wing of gold,
   Seated beneath the canopy of Might,
Whose glorious eyes more glorious scenes unfold,
   The flame of reason and the couch of Light!
My verse to cheer, thy glowing lamp display,
   From whence, for ever beaming Love divine;—
   Bids Beauty's cheek through Heaven's expanse to shine.
And o'er the dark profound, hails spirits on their way.'

This is good sounding verse indeed. It reminds us of Chatterton's African Eclogues; and of a sublime effusion which we remember in our youth, and which began as follows:

" Hail, intellectual Hellebore! whose strain
   Dulcifies Thunder, bids the insurgent rain
   Roll upwards!" &c.

Both of these compositions, however, professedly set out with a determination of being nonsensical: but we are far from insinuating that this object is professed by the present writer. It is common for a resemblance to exist between works in many general points, without the least similarity in their design.

We proceed to *a copy of verses* on ' Poesy,' and Anacreon Moore, and Lord Byron. We select the part which relates to the latter, and cannot persuade ourselves to omit the author's address *to his* own muse at the conclusion.

'Ye gorgeous stars in Poesy's expanse,
Still tune the song; still weave the mystic dance!
Ye nine seraphic—ope the portals wide—
See! Byron comes, our latest hope and pride:
Onward he moves, as lympid Peneus flows:
Calm, yet majestic; mighty in repose:
How his ideas swell the tide of song!
How grand its course, how dignified, how strong!

'The bower prepare; select the roseate wreath;
Ye tender gales, the richest perfume breathe!
He comes—O hail him, ever-tuneful streams!
Thou sun, there glowing, shed thy brightest beams;
Ye nightingales, diffuse the tend'rest lay!
Ye milky swans, your snow-white wings display,
To lure the poet to the calm retreat,
Where ev'ry charm and ev'ry beauty meet!

'No more, my Muse! Oh, cease the tedious song:
No echoes will this lowly verse prolong.
Forgive, O Poesy, my murd'rous hand,
That fain would slay thee in thy fav'rite land:
Forgive, O thou, who art a muse on earth,
This lay, that boasts not a seraphic birth;
Oh, let thy judgment close its falcon eye,
Else will these numbers its poor victim die.'

We have only room to observe some pretty detached ideas. Among these we would select,

'A blossom *on Misfortune's Isle!*'
'His chariot enters the ENRUBIED sky;'

and, above all, the following magnificent specimen of the bathos:

'Oh! are the curtains of creation spread,
Around the world—*and Beauty's pillowed head?*'

a passage that is unequalled, excepting by that instance in the art of sinking which excels perhaps all others; and which occurs in some Latin Sapphics 'On the Last Day:'

——— "*Mundus*
Corruit flammis!—pereuntque flores
Liliaque alba."

Art. 18. *The Peacock and Parrot, on their Tour in Search of the Author of the Peacock at Home.* With Engravings. 12mo. 1s. plain, 1s. 6d. coloured. Harris. 1816.

In these versifying days, "each *poem* has its brother;" and though, in the present instance, the younger is not equal to the elders who have served for its models, the admirers of "The Peacock at Home" will be pleased with this lively tribute to Mrs. Dorset, the reputed author of that ingenious performance.

Art. 19. *Arabia;* A Poem: with Notes. To which are added several smaller Pieces. By Johnson Grant, M.A. of St. John's College, Oxon. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Hatchard. 1815.

This volume is the work of a scholar and a man of taste. His poem, indeed, like all merely descriptive poems without any connecting story, is "apt to be tedious:" but, at the same time that its comparative shortness forbids any *overwhelming* tedium, it is so abundant in materials for reflection on the singular and unaltered region which it describes, as to afford much rational entertainment to the reader. The notes also are very amusing and instructive. We could select from the text several strong manifestations of poetic ability: but we prefer to give our readers the perusal of some complete little performance from the same hand; and we shall therefore make our quotations from the minor pieces.

'*Chalfont, in Buckinghamshire,*' (quære, Whether St. Peter's or St. Giles's, Chalfont?) '*the temporary Residence of Milton* * *during the Plague in* 1665.

'November 6. 1813.

'Oh thou that dar'd'st into the furthest sphere,
Ere from its shell of earth thy soul had fled;
Seems as though still that spirit ling'ring near,
The living call'd to converse with the dead:
I cross'd thy threshold with religious fear,
With pilgrim's zeal to kiss some hallow'd shrine.
"What vast conceptions were unfolded here,"
I said, and bow'd with rev'rence half divine,
Where art thou now? Musing some loftier theme,
Dwell'st thou where erst thy seraph-fancy soar'd?
Or haunting these green paths, to earth restor'd,
Swept thy shade past in yon departing gleam?—
Heaven grants thee not:—the struggling light but shone;
Thought coin'd the rest;—and with the gleam 'tis gone!'

We selected this poem rather for the sake of the anecdote about Elwood the Quaker than for the verses; although they are very fair: but we are not quite pleased with the *certain* anticipation of another edition of these poems at the end of the note.

Mr. Grant is a suburban poet. He has wandered through the shades of Hornsey, and traced the banks of the New River. The poem and the adjoined note, which we shall next quote, make us at once acquainted with the beauty of a very pretty summer-scene near

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'* On his here reading his great poem to Elwood the Quaker, "Thou hast said many fine things," observed this companion of his retreat, "concerning Paradise lost; but what hast thou got to say about Paradise found?" This quaint remark suggested to him the idea of his Odyssey; part, or the whole, of which was then written in the cottage of Chalfont. The building is at present inhabited by a turner in wood, and remains in substantial repair. Some Goth has, however, pulled down a porch, over which was the poet's study. A sketch of the building is now in my possession, and may probably be published in some future edition of these poems.'

near the metropolis, and with the author's athletic powers of perambulation and poetical powers of description, in one panoramic view:

‘ HORNSEY. *

‘ No! 'tis not, Hornsey, thy sweet-cow'ring vale,
Which guardian swells from prying wand'rer hide;
'Tis not thy villas, deck'd in Nature's pride,
And screen'd by Muswell from the North's rude gale;
'Tis not thy grass-walks, or thy willows pale,
That drink, with pendant boughs, the lambent tide,
Whose calm, clear waters, soft as Siloah's, glide
In silence, undisturb'd by oar or sail:
'Tis not these charms my ling'ring steps detain,
Though themes for artist's gaze, for minstrel's lay;
Far other bonds have clasp'd the secret chain
That holds me with a more than tyrant's sway:
Worth, truth, simplicity — a timorous train,
Fled from the crowd, like wood-nymphs, o'er the plain.’

The lines on the death of the writer's mother have much feeling; — and yet — but we will suppress our rising objection; and, presenting another short specimen of Mr. Grant's poetry,

“ Which, through the cool sequester'd vale of fame,
Will keep the even tenour of its way,”

we must conclude this article.

‘ *Epitaph in Pancras Church Yard. On A. H.*

‘ Still, sainted excellence, withdrawn from view,
In Mem'ry's tablet shall thy virtues live;
Still teach (of Heav'n's pure laws exemplar true)
To dread, act, suffer, sympathize, forgive.

‘ Oft from thy silver sphere, bright radiance! bend,
To greet each thought, aspiring to thy throne:
This thy soft counsel, “ Parent, sister, friend,
“ Live as I liv'd, to go where I have gone.” ’

‘ * The New River, which winds calmly through this romantic village, and which no barges are permitted to navigate, having its borders tastefully decked with overhanging trees, arbour-seats, and green sloping banks, interspersed with wooden bridges, which span the stream — possesses all the grace and beauty of a natural current. — The author during one winter walked to Hornsey church, from the remotest point in London, a distance of nearly eight miles; which he retraced, after performing double duty. It was his custom, in summer, to assemble the charity-children between the services, for examination, in the churchyard; to both which circumstances these sonnets allude.’

NOVELS.

Art. 20. *Chronicles of an Illustrious House;* or the Peer, the Lawyer, and the Hunch-back. Embellished with Characters and Anecdotes of well known Persons. By Anne of Swansea, Author of "Cambrian Pictures," "Sicilian Mysteries," &c. 12mo. 5 Vols. 1l. 7s. 6d. Newman and Co. 1816.

It may be that those characters which are here said to be attempted from real life are 'well known' to the writer, but they cannot interest the rest of the world, being represented as obscure and spiteful persons inhabiting a country-village. The hero of the tale also forfeits our regard by his meanness in desiring to marry, for the sake of fortune, a woman whom he despises; and by denying, through false shame, his affinity to a worthy man whom he believes to be his brother. Some expressions in the work are indelicate, and such as we should reluctantly believe to have proceeded from a female pen; while others are inaccurate, and would equally disgrace a writer of either sex: for instance: Vol. i. p. 42., 'he hastily *rose up.*' — P. 56., 'the horrorized valet withdrew.' — Vol. ii. p. 77., 'the true quality stare.' — P. 81., 'Mr. Montague considered him a servile dust-licking being.' — Vol. iii. p. 46., 'her eyes were frequently *lit up* with a dazzling lustre,' &c. Throughout the work, also, we have too large a portion of vulgar character, as well as vulgar language; and the incidents are all as old as the now *old* title of *Novel*, under which we seldom find any thing *new*.

Art. 21. *Valentine's Eve.* By Mrs. Opie. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Longman and Co. 1816.

This story is not calculated either by its conduct or its circumstances to display advantageously the talents of the writer; and, since "most animals know where their strength lies," as Warburton said, when referring to his critics, such persons as attempt to perform the critical office towards Mrs. Opie must consider her as an exception to his rule. Why, else, does she so often attempt the composition of playful dialogue, in which she has never succeeded; and the exhibition of consummate villainy, such as is here attributed to Melvyn and Sophia Clermont, and such as her own mind is too amiable to assist her in conceiving? The heroine, however, (Catherine Shirley,) is a high and christian character, doing honour to the principles and feelings of the fair delineator. The plan of confining the reward of her innocence entirely to another world is also a stroke of originality: but, "as readers go," her example might have been more inviting, if her misfortunes had not arisen from the exercise of her virtues; and if her death had been retarded, and she had been allowed to enjoy the esteem of her husband and the caresses of her children before she went hence to be no more seen. Lord Shirley is not consistently drawn. He ought not to have listened to nor visited Sophia and the defamers of his wife, when he had once been apprized of their real characters; and, on the other hand, he abandons his suspicions too lightly at first, after having acted on them so strongly. It is scarcely worth while to add the remark, but surely the title of the work is not justified by the single, adventitious, and uninfluential circumstance from which it is derived. If the event in question (though itself important) had happened on a Thursday or a Friday, would Mrs. Opie have called her history by the name of that day of the week?

The introductory chapters of this interesting but unequal performance are in Mrs. Opie's best manner, and full of the natural touches for which her pen is deservedly distinguished; though the first begins rather *oddly* with stating that 'General Shirley was dining with a friend in the year eighteen hundred and *odd*.' We should like to ask the fair writer what year this was; and also to suggest to her the revision of the following passages: Vol. i. p. 112., 'going in and out of the room *to find up* all his books.' — Vol. ii. p. 95., 'Melvyn was firm in his *refusal to stay no longer*.' — P. 125., 'he feared his *hopes* of an union between the earl and his heiress *was* as far off as ever.' — P. 266., 'Pray how soon does she go?' 'Oh, *not of a* month, replied Lady Shirley.' — P. 334., 'they are always expressly *forbidden never to come in* when their lady is singing,' &c.

Art. 22. *The Orphan of Tintern Abbey*. By Sophia F. Ziegenhirt, Author of "Seabrook Village," &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Newman. 1816.

A novel of the most ordinary class, in which the construction of the sentences and that of the story are equally confused.

BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 23. *The Life of the most Noble Arthur, Duke of Wellington*, from the Period of his first Achievements in India, down to the Invasion of France, and the Peace of Paris in 1814, comprehending a Historical View of the Peninsular War; also the Civil and Military Transactions in Spain and Portugal; with Biographical Notices of eminent cotemporary Military Characters, the whole exhibiting a connected and ample Delineation of all the great and memorable Events of the last Six Years. By George Elliott, Esq. 8vo. pp. 670. 14s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1815.

A long title does not in general prepossess a reviewer in favour of a book: but, in the present case, we have some satisfaction in saying that the negative conclusion to be drawn from it applies rather to the manner than to the matter of the work. We have here, in the compass of a thick octavo, a great variety of facts relative to the military history of late years; and the author, if he has not a claim to the character of a finished writer, ought certainly not to be classed with those compilers, who are not merely incapable of original views but are in the habit of distorting what ought to be a plain narrative with tawdry embellishments and ridiculous effusions.

Mr. Elliott begins with an historical sketch of the Wellesley family, in which we feel no desire to follow him beyond the grandfather of the Duke, who received, it seems, in 1746, the title of Baron Mornington. This title was advanced to that of Earl in

1768,

1768, in the person of his eldest son, the father of the four brothers so well known in the history of the present age. Their respective years of birth were as follow:

Marquis Wellesley born in 1760.
William Wellesley Pole in 1763.
Arthur, (the Duke) in 1769. (1st May.)
Sir Henry Wellesley in 1773.

A fifth brother, a clergyman, was born in 1771; and two sisters were also added to the family, both of whom were married many years ago. The Dowager Countess of Mornington, the mother of this numerous progeny, is still living, and had the pleasure of being present in 1814 in the House of Lords when the Duke took his seat.

The Duke owed, like Marlborough, a part of his tactical knowlege to that country which has felt so severely its effects, having been educated at the military Academy of Angers. He entered the army as an ensign in the end of 1787, obtained a lieutenancy in the next year, and in 1791 was made a captain. Soon after the breaking out of the war of 1793, he received a majority, and was enabled, by the quickness with which our forces were then augmented, to purchase a lieutenant-colonelcy before the close of the year. In 1794, he went with his regiment (the 33d Foot) with Lord Moira to Flanders, and was present at the disastrous retreat of our troops to Bremen in the succeeding winter. Being subsequently ordered to the West Indies, he embarked with his regiment, but fortunately escaped that disagreeable and unhealthy station, in consequence of the unfavourable winds which so long kept back Admiral Christian's squadron in the end of 1795. The 33d was now ordered to Ireland to recruit; and Lieut.-Col. Wellesley remained with it, until the appointment of his brother in 1798 to the government of India, which enabled the Colonel to prosecute his profession in the quarter in which he had the best chance of being employed on services of distinction.

Colonel Wellesley co-operated in the assault of Seringapatam, 4th May 1799, and obtained in 1802 the rank of Major-General. War breaking out in 1803, with Scindia and Holkar, he took an active share in the operations as commander of a small army, and became known to the public by the battle of Assye. In 1804 he was made a Knight of the Bath; in 1805 he returned to England; and in 1807 he had a principal command under Lord Cathcart in the Copenhagen-expedition. Little occurred in the operations on that occasion to fix the attention of the public: but it was evident, both from the dispatch of Lord Cathcart and from the terms in which the Speaker mentioned General Wellesley in his address of thanks, that he was now considered as the confidential military adviser of ministers. In the next year (August 21st) was fought the battle of Vimiera, since which his exploits and successes are too fresh in the recollection of our readers to stand in need of any illustration.

Our farther remarks, therefore, shall be confined to Mr. Elliott, *whose* chief trespass consists in mixing up with his narrative a quantity of extraneous matter, such as a long account of India-politics previously to 1797, and a circumstantial detail of Bonaparte's perfidious manœuvres at Bayonne towards the royal family of Spain. These, with a variety of similar interpolations and digressions, essentially diminish the interest of the narrative; and they prevent the reader's acquirement, from the author's remarks, of the benefit which he would have received had they been laid before him in a concise and connected form. Had Mr. E. been more accustomed to the practice of composition, and more fully impressed with the importance of brevity, his book might have established a claim to considerable atention; as it is, we cannot with propriety rate it higher than an useful collection of documents. The appendix contains a number of official accounts extracted from the Gazette, such as the Duke's reports of the battles of Salamanca, Vittoria, &c.

The grant voted by parliament in May 1814, to be laid out in purchasing a domain for the Duke, was 300,000l.; forming with two previous donations a total of 500,000l.; a sum which, in the actual state of our burdens, may appear large, but which is considerably below the amount to which the erection of a building like that of Blenheim would have carried the national expenditure.

Art. 24. *Memoirs of Francis, commonly called Saint Francis, de Sales,* Titular Prince and Bishop of Geneva. Translated from the French. With a Preface and Notes by the Translator. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Saint Francis de Sales was descended from a noble family of great consideration, had an education suitable to his rank and expectations, and was remarkable for the proficiency which he made in learning. Having discovered an early bias in favour of virtue and piety, he was brought up for the church: abundant preferment was conferred on him; and he became a dignitary. Not contented with holding a distinguished rank as an ecclesiastic, he engaged zealously in the active duties of his profession, preached incessantly, and with such great success that he wrought numerous conversions and reclaimed many heretics. Early in life, he was appointed to the coadjutorship of his native bishopric, (Geneva,) and very shortly afterward succeeded to the episcopal charge. In this elevated situation, his conduct was most exemplary; he rose to all the authority of a venerated pastor; stood high in the good graces of his prince; and attracted the notice of popes and kings. The French monarch offered him most flattering perferments, which he declined; his reply being that 'he regarded his diocese as his wife, and he could not think of deserting his poor wife for one that was richer;' adding in the words of the psalmist, "The Lord is my shepherd, I shall not want."

It is recorded of this pious bishop that he bore persecution and detraction with christian meekness, and that he would accept of no rewards for his evangelical labours, but exhibited on all occasions a complete pattern of self-denial. Among his good deeds, it is mentioned that he founded a religious order, *the Nuns of the Visitation of the Holy Virgin:* but we cannot regard the conversion of the Duke de Lesdiguieres as a mighty atchievement, while we bear in our recollection what Sully says of that haughty chieftain.

All this is well; and we are ready to admit that Francis de Sales was a pious, conscientious, and exemplary prelate: but we see nothing in his story that should lead us to hold up his picture to a protestant public, at this time of day. We can discover nothing memorable in his case, beyond that of a most faithful, conscientious, and indefatigable pastor.

If the first part of this tract presents little that called for publication, this is far more the case with the second, which professes to give anecdotes and remarkable sayings of the Saint. Of anecdotes, however, scarcely any are related, and those which do occur are of a very trifling nature. The sayings, also, though very becoming in a highly religious pastor, are mostly trite; while several of them are quaint and simple. For example: 'Be always as gentle as possible, and remember that we catch more flies with a spoonful of honey, than with a hundred barrels of vinegar.'—'If we sin by any extreme, let it be in the extreme of meekness. Too much sugar never spoils the sauce.' (Quære?)—'Zeal is a dangerous virtue, because there are few people who know how to practise it right. Many people are like those awkward tilers, who spoil more tiles than they replace.'—'The bees are many months in making a little honey, which a man swallows at a mouthful.'—Surely the publication of such passages as these do no farther honour to the memory of the prelate, than as they shew the devout bent of his mind. We have also to allege that, besides doing that which was not necessary, the Editor has done that which was not fair. He has culled from the Saint's biography such particulars as appear to have been consonant to his own mind, and has thus formed a figure adapted to his own views. In the annals of the Romish church, the Saint is recorded as one who was favoured with revelations, visited by angels, and gifted with the power of performing miracles, which distinctions procured for him the beatitude. Now it savours of a pious fraud to take this beatified personage, and reduce him to a mere evangelical christian. Why may not another be permitted still farther to garble, and make the Saint a mere moral christian, or even a mere moral character? We own that we do not consider it as fair thus to seize the Saints of a foreign communion, reduce the figures, and exhibit them thus fore-shortened as if in their natural state. We shall next expect to see Holy Teresa acting the part of a mere devotee. In our opinion, this is not a justifiable mode of gaining countenance to vital Christianity; it is contrary to good faith; and the Catholics will have a just cause of complaint.

The editor tells us that the Saint held sacred the right of individual judgment, and deprecated all improper interference of the secular power. We are sorry to find this honourable testimonial contradicted; it being related, in his life, that he went to Turin to solicit from the Duke of Savoy the extirpation of Calvinism in his dominions.

POLITICS.

Art. 25. *Observations sur l'Etat Actuel de la France,* &c.; i. e. Observations on the present State of France and of Europe, in relation to Bonaparte and the Bourbons. By M. J. H. J. S. H. an Officer of the National Guard of Paris. 8vo. pp. 55. London, Deconchy.

A number of particulars in the state of France, during the last two years, will be found in this pamphlet; given with little connection and without the benefit of accompanying reflections, but possessing some interest from their recency. It was published in May 1815, and contains several remarks on the causes of the success of Bonaparte in the preceding March. The writer has little talent for generalizing, but had evidently been in the way of hearing discussions on the topics current in the fashionable circles of the French capital. After the entry of the King, the republican party circulated a variety of disquieting reports; such as that the officers were about to be replaced by emigrants, and that the clergy were on the point of regaining not only all the influence but all the property of the church in former days. Mean-time, the government was annoyed by crowds of petitioners, who repaired from all directions to Paris, claiming a place or a pension for the grand merit of having taken no share in the Revolution. On this side of the Channel, our men in office are abundantly harassed by such applicants: but their numbers are wonderfully moderate, when compared to those of a country in which the gentry are so little accustomed to the exercise of industrious professions as in France. Refusals were unavoidable, and the consequence was the excitement of considerable discontent, which was increased by the necessity which the Bourbon government found for keeping up the taxes in all their severity.

This writer, though a Royalist, is by no means blind to the faults of the aristocratic part of his countrymen, and to the different behaviour which is necessary towards the *Tiers Etat* now that they have made the important discovery that talents are no longer hereditary. The chief fault of the King was, in his opinion, the restriction of the liberty of the press; a liberty certainly not enjoyed by the French during the Revolution, but which might have been safely conceded in 1814, disposed as the King was to govern with justice and moderation. It would be idle, however, to attribute to this or to any other political mistake of the Bourbon-government, the rapid success of Bonaparte in March 1815. The great majority of the country, the land-holders, the merchants, in short all who followed regular habits of industry, were adverse to the man whose return they considered as totally subversive of their welfare. That revolution was therefore strictly military, and is to be explained only by the blind credulity of the soldiers or an impatience for promotion on the part of the junior officers.

Art 26. *A Letter to Lord Liverpool,* on the Consequences of a Renewal of our late enormous Expenditure on the Continent;

on the Means of diminishing the same in case of any general War throughout Europe; and of the Motives or Reasons for inferring the Necessity or Possibility of avoiding those National Evils altogether. 8vo. pp. 34. Asperne. 1815.

Art. 27. *Letter the Second to Lord Liverpool,* on the Political and Commercial Importance of Africa to Great Britain, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 39. Asperne. 1815.

The signature of these epistles to our *Premier* is the same (Poplicola) which was subscribed to a letter to his Lordship on the state of Sicily, reported in our Number for November last. The author may also be recognized by his style, which continues just as aukward and as full of repetitions in his latter as it was in his earlier essays. He seems, however, in great good humour with his own productions; and we can discover no traces of distrust in his talents, whether we look to the variety of topics discussed, or to the urgency with which he presses his opinions on the public.

In the first letter, after a variety of desultory remarks, the writer comes to something like a point, by advising our ministers to interfere in future with a bolder hand in the government of the countries which may owe their protection to our arms. Such, he says, was the conduct of the French; and it would be wrong to deny that it was productive of considerable advantage to the inhabitants. His next recommendation is to avoid, by all possible means, a recurrence of that ruinous fall in the exchange, which has of late years so materially clogged our remittances to the Continent; and he advises, in the third place, a postponement of the payment of a part of our subsidies till after the conclusion of a war. These remarks are neither new in themselves nor applicable to our politics under existing circumstances: the aspect of Europe offering, as far as we can judge, a fair prospect of continued tranquillity. The pamphlet was evidently written previously to the decisive day of Waterloo.

The letters relative to Africa are of a less transient character, and would be intitled to attention if the writer did not go beyond all sober calculation in the manner of recommending his projects. In our account of the first of them, Rev. Vol. lxxv. p. 215., we sufficiently stated their object; and we have now only to remark that the present æra of general tranquillity is highly favourable to speculations having for their object the diffusion of commerce, or the amelioration of the lot of our fellow-creatures.

Art. 28. *Reflections on the Financial System of Great Britain,* and particularly on the Sinking Fund; written in France in the Summer of 1812. By Walter Boyd, Esq. 8vo. pp. 54. Hatchard. 1815.

Our readers know that Mr. B. filled a prominent place in the mercantile world about twenty years ago, as the directing partner of the house of Boyd, Benfield, and Co.; which, possessing the capital acquired by Mr. Benfield during a long residence in India, and the mercantile activity of the present writer and other gentlemen, came very rapidly into the transaction of extensive business. They figured as Loan-contractors, and certainly made a considerable sum in that way in 1795: but the shortness of their career seemed destined to afford another example of the instability of prosperity in trade, whenever it does not rest on the habits formed by long care and experience. Their success in one branch made them imprudently adventurous in others; and their transactions, particularly in the West-India-line, were not guided by that caution without which the ultimate result must be to sink the largest capitals in doubtful securities on the other side of the Atlantic. The consequence of all this was a hesitation in their affairs in 1798, and a final stoppage in 1799; after which Mr. Benfield died, and Mr. Boyd retired to the Continent, where he continued to reside until the late peace.

The pamphlet before us was written in the neighbourhood of Paris, before the change produced in public affairs by the discomfiture of Bonaparte's Russian expedition. All was at that time obscure and doubtful in the state of Europe; and Mr. Boyd thought that he could not better employ his leisure than in suggesting a mode by which Great Britain might be enabled to prolong the contest, without over-stretching her financial means. The substance of his plan was a partial encroachment on the sinking fund, with the view of bringing it back to the principles of the act of 1792, and thus giving the country the means of defraying the war-expences for several years without imposing new taxes.

As Mr. Boyd found no opportunity for transmitting his MS. to England, he was obliged to keep it until the spring of 1813; by which time he learned from the French news-papers that Mr. Vansittart had brought forwards a similar scheme, recommended by all the authority of office. Mr. B.'s labours were now no farther interesting than as indicative of a curious coincidence on the part of two persons totally unconnected with each other, and placed, as he feelingly observes, 'almost at the two extremities of the scale of rank, fortune, and situation.' It would incourse be superfluous for us to enlarge on the different schemes suggested by Mr. B., of which he gives three, (pp. 14. 20 28.) as we have already explained the general object of his calculations, and as the circumstances of late years render their practical adoption unnecessary to the extent proposed by him.

Art. 29. *A few Observations on the Continuance of the Property-tax*, and the Danger of a great Military Establishment to our Freedom and Liberty. By a Friend to the Constitution. 8vo. 1s. Law and Co.

The remarks of this writer prove him to be that *Friend to the Constitution* which he calls himself: since he forcibly deprecates the continuance of the Property-tax, (which fortunately was discarded soon after he wrote his pamphlet,) though he deemed it necessary during the war; and he as warmly condemns the maintenance of a large army during peace, on the ground of its known danger to the freedom of the country and its unavoidable addition to our pecuniary burthens. He laments also the comparative neglect of our navy, which he justly considers as the natural defence of our island, and as having so well deserved our respect and gratitude.

EDUCATION.

Art. 30. *Arthur and Alice*; or, the Little Wanderers. Small 12mo. 1s. Harris. 1815.

This ingenious juvenile story, aided by some pretty sketches which adorn it, may afford safe amusement to its young readers.

Art. 31. *Whim and Contradiction*; or the Party of Pleasure. A Tale for young Persons. By the Author of "Arthur and Alice," "Walter and Herbert," &c. 12mo. 1s. Harris. 1815.

An excellent little tale; exposing to youth, in an amusing manner, the errors which form the title and subject of the book.

Art. 32. *Walter and Herbert*; or Precipitation and Slowness equally subversive of good Intention. By the Author of "Arthur and Alice." 12mo. 1s. Harris. 1815.

Like the story which we have just mentioned, by the same writer, this tale is superior to many of those which are now published for children, and furnishes useful and entertaining examples.

LAW.

Art. 33. *The Speech of Charles Phillips, Esq. Barrister*, as delivered by him in the Court of Common Pleas, Dublin, in the Case of Guthrie *v.* Sterne, for Adultery. With the original Introduction considerably enlarged, by the Rev. Henry G. White. Third Edition. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Asperne. 1816.

Few of our readers can be wholly unacquainted with this specimen of the eloquence of the Dublin Bar, since it has been so largely introduced in all our news-papers. It deserves, indeed, to be rescued from mere temporary or local notice, as a composition seldom exceeded on any similar occasion in glow of thought, power of language, and command over the feelings of the hearer or reader. We coincide, therefore, with Mr. White in thinking that it 'ought to be read in every family-circle throughout the land,' in which the subject of it can be deemed proper for introduction.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 34. *A Narrative of Napoleon Buonaparte's Journey from Fontainebleau to Frejus*, in April, 1814. By Count Truchses-Waldburg, attendant Prussian Commissary. Translated from the German. Second Edition, with some Additions from a recent French Translation, made under the Inspection of the Author at Paris. 8vo. 3s. Murray. 1816.

As far as the transaction recorded in this pamphlet can now be interesting, and such it still is as matter of history, this detail of it will be acceptable; because, as the translator observes,

'Count Truchses-Waldburg is an officer high in the service of his Prussian Majesty, whose reputation and veracity have hitherto been unimpeached, and whose honour and integrity have secured him the confidence of his fellow-countrymen. Hence it cannot be matter of astonishment that in Germany this account has received implicit belief; and it is now submitted to the British public, in the full reliance that neither the author nor the translator will be charged with gratifying private pique, or administering to the malice of public rancour.'

The principal facts confirmed by this narrative are the bad reception given to Napoleon during his journey, and the overpowering fears which it caused in him, making him submit to artifices and disguises. It establishes also the statement of his interview with Augereau near Valence; in which Napoleon behaved with great condescension (real or feigned) and even kindness, while the Marshal treated him with disdain.

Art. 35. *Rules of Life*; with Reflections on the Manners and Dispositions of Mankind. 12mo. pp. 285. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co.

We have here a series of moral aphorisms, put together without any other rule of arrangement than the desire of exhibiting a varied succession to the reader. In accounting for this deficiency of method, the compiler observes that, as many of the maxims embraced more subjects than one, it was found a matter of great difficulty to assign them to particular heads; so that his only alternative was to supply the want of connection by an index at the end of the volume. We give a few extracts:

'Few things are impracticable in themselves. It is oftener from want of application than want of means that men fail of success.'—

'There is nearly as much ability necessary to know how to make use of good advice, as to know how to act for one's self.'

'A principal cause of unhappiness in the world is the placing our enjoyment on something else than our profession: when we make our business only the means of obtaining something else, we work like slaves; when we make it a principal enjoyment, we have a pleasure in every thing we do.'—

'When we long for any thing, it is often the same, as to our happiness, whether we obtain the object or lose the desire.'—

'It is prudent to shew that an evil report is false; but too much anxiety on that head is apt to make the matter suspicious.'—

Many of the admonitions, however, are less clear and appropriate; some of them being announced with too much brevity, and others impaired in their effect by want of connection. Of the former, we may take as an example the sentence No. 38.

'In some minds, hope succeeds to hope, not in the ordinary progression of nature, but as the young phœnix rises out of the ashes of its predecessor.'

The two following seem sufficiently connected to go together, yet are placed at the distance of more than a hundred pages.

'Had we no faults ourselves, we should take less pleasure in observing and relating the faults of others.'

'It is generally our own vanity that makes the vanity of others give us pain; when we have no vanity ourselves, that of others can only excite our contempt or ridicule.'

We shall also exhibit a specimen of those that come under the description of common-place.

'Always adapt your conversation to the people you are conversing with: it would be absurd to talk on the same subject, and in the same manner, to a bishop, a philosopher, a captain, and a lady.'—

'Pleasure is the rock on which most young men have split: they launch out with crowded sails in quest of it, but without sense to direct their course, or knowledge sufficient to steer the vessel: hence pain and shame, instead of pleasure, are the returns of the voyage.'

The compiler has evidently taken much trouble in bringing together a series of admonitory precepts for the use of his readers, and has adapted them to all ages and stations. The young, the gay, the fair, may consequently all find materials for reflection and useful conclusions in this collection: but the misfortune is the little chance of their being induced to persevere in reading it, the writer having unluckily adopted one of the least inviting methods of conveying serious instruction. His book has none of the interest arising from a continued narrative, and none of the force proceeding from a connection of arguments; nor can we subscribe to the accuracy of his apology that it became necessary to forego all juxta position with reference to the chain of ideas, in consequence of the maxims applying to a variety of subjects. Mr. Locke, in writing his common-place-books, found no difficulty in selecting a leading word to serve as an index to each of his multifarious memoranda; and the same facility will be experienced by any person who has perseverance sufficient to follow up the method of that distinguished philosopher. To derive advantage from this publication on the existing plan, it is necessary for each reader to travel through the whole, and to make an arrangement for himself; a task by no means likely to be undertaken by the unthinking persons for whom it is chiefly intended. — Should the compiler be induced to prepare a second edition, or to come before the public with other materials, we hope to see in the alteration of his plan a due sense of the importance of connection, as well as a resolute exclusion of all that falls under the description of trivial or common-place.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We agree with '*Amicus*' in the general sentiments which he expresses, and we think that the article to which he refers was in no degree at variance with them. No opinions of an opposite nature could be collected from it; and no danger could exist of any such being countenanced, by the omission of more detailed censure on a subject obviously revolting. Admiration of the composition was not admiration of the subject.

'*A Constant Reader*' speaks of a work of which we have no knowlege.

The remarks of '*A Contributor*' shall be considered when we peruse the publication in question: but we never accept anonymous *contributions*.

To the writer of the long MS. relative to *St. Clyde*, we repeat the answer just given to another Correspondent.

'*Museum, or Man as he is.*' We have no memorandum or recollection of this work.

—*** The APPENDIX to this Vol. of the Review will be published with the Number for May, on the first of June.

THE
APPENDIX
TO THE
SEVENTY-NINTH VOLUME
OF THE
MONTHLY REVIEW
ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

Art. I. *Mémoires Secrets,* &c.; *i. e.* The Secret Memoirs and unpublished Correspondence of Cardinal *Dubois,* Prime Minister under the Regency of the Duke of Orleans; collected, arranged, and enlarged by a Sketch of the Peace of Utrecht and various Historical Notices. By M. L. de Sevelinges, Knight of the Royal and Military Order of St. Louis. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 892. Paris. 1815. London, Berthoud and Wheatley.

It was formerly the custom in France to advert willingly in conversation to the regency of the Duke of Orleans, as a period replete with those amusing anecdotes, that play of wit, and those epigrammatic sallies, which captivate so strongly the imagination of our volatile neighbours. The case, however, has been altered since the terrific scenes of the Revolution checked the habitual gaiety of the French, and led the more reflecting portion of them to trace the sources of their sorrows in the loose and unprincipled conduct of the regent and his associates. Of these latter, the most conspicuous in talents and in influence was the well-known *Dubois;* who, by dint of unremitted activity and an unblushing sacrifice of principle, found means to raise himself from the office of sub-tutor to the prince, first to the management of the affairs of the family of Orleans, afterward to the station of secretary of state for foreign affairs, and eventually to that of prime-minister of France. Not contented with political rank, this unworthy son of the church pursued likewise ecclesiastical honours, and succeeded, in spite of the want of birth and character, in getting himself made first an Archbishop and ultimately a Cardinal.

The work which is now before us would have been more accurately described by the plain title of "Unpublished Correspondence of Cardinal *Dubois*," since the documents printed are in no respect a narrative, but a selection of letters. The editor apprizes his readers that the originals were first in the possession of M. *le Dran*, *Premier Commis* of the foreign affairs during *Dubois*' ministry, and the confidential assistant of the Cardinal; that they were bequeathed by this gentleman to M. *Gerard de Rayneval*, who afterward acted as negociator on the part of France in the treaty of 1783; and that he, M. DE SEVELINGES, having become known to this respectable diplomatist, was allowed to inspect the manuscripts, with the intention of giving them to the world after the lapse of time should have removed the objections attendant on the publication of confidential papers. He has supplied the chasms in the narrative part of the work by the following additions: 1. An Introduction, explaining the Motives of the friendly Understanding between France and England during the Regency of the Duke of Orleans. — 2. A biographical Notice of *Dubois*. — 3. Three historical Sketches; the first relating to the events which led to the treaty of Utrecht; the second to the Pretender, son of James II.; and the third, to the state of parties at that time in England.

William Dubois was born in 1656, at a small town in the Limousin, where his father practised as an apothecary. He was sent to Paris at the early age of twelve, in the expectation of a bursary or scholarship: but he failed in obtaining it, and was glad to procure leave to attend the classes by acting as servitor to the head of the college. He next sought a livelihood as tutor, first in the family of a merchant, and next in that of a man of rank, who was master of the wardrobe to Monsieur, brother of Louis XIV. This situation made him intimate with the sub-preceptor of the son of Monsieur, afterward Duke of Orleans; and the infirmities of this teacher disqualifying him from continued attention to the pupil, *Dubois* was introduced as his assistant, and soon found the means of obtaining an ascendancy over the mind of the young prince. On the death of the sub-preceptor, he was appointed his successor, and now began to act in a two-fold capacity; exerting himself with ardour, during the day, to improve the talents of the prince, and rendering himself at night the tool of his licentious pleasures. It happened that even Louis XIV. had soon occasion to avail himself of the influence of *Dubois* with his pupil. That monarch was desirous of marrying his natural daughter, Mademoiselle *de Blois*, to the young prince, but apprehended much opposition from the mother, who had all the pride of a German princess, and possessed great influence over her son. The father was already gained over to the measure: but, to fortify the son against the influence of his mother, it was necessary to employ *Dubois*, who acted with much address, and succeeded in carrying the point.

The young Duke being subsequently permitted to take the field under Marshal Luxemburgh, *Dubois* attended him at the battle of Steinkirk, and is said to have manifested considerable courage. "*Il va au feu comme un grenadier*," said M. de Luxemburgh; "*le jour de Steinkirk, je le trouvais par tout*." He was soon afterward sent over to London to act under Marshal *Tallard*, at that time French ambassador. He now dropped his clerical dress, took the title of *Chevalier*, and became acquainted with several English persons of rank, particularly Lord Stanhope; with whom, as we shall see presently, he eventually transacted important negotiations. Having offended *Tallard*, he found it necessary to return to Paris; where he continued, as before, the guide and director of the young Duke of Orleans. His confidence and impatient language led him not unfrequently into troubles, but he had always the art of getting out of them, and sometimes of turning them to his advantage.

It is from the year 1715, the date of the elevation of the Duke of Orleans to the regency, that the life of *Dubois* may be said to belong to history. He was now in his sixtieth year, and was not a little mortified at the opposition made, in various quarters, to the attainment of that political influence at which he had so long laboured. "My son," said the Regent's mother, "I have only one favour to ask of you; it is that you will give no employment to that knave, *Dubois*." Another lady, at whose house he had lived some time, took occasion to remark, "If a sentence of truth be spoken by that little Abbé, I will make a point of getting it written out and put into a frame." The Regent left the room in considerable embarrassment; and *Dubois*, hearing that he was wavering, is stated to have gone to him, and to have said boldly, "Will you now, in your day of elevation, leave in the back-ground the man who has laboured so effectually for it?" The Duke gave way, appointed him a counsellor of state, and is reported on this occasion to have whispered in his ear, "Do, my friend, I entreat you, act now with some regard to honesty."

The course of events soon called for an exercise of *Dubois'* diplomatic address. The intrigues of the court of Spain, under the dangerous impulse of Alberoni, having excited the Regent's disquietude, and shewed him the necessity of looking out for powerful allies, *Dubois* is said to have pointed his attention to England in preference to any other power; and, finding the negotiations for an alliance proceed slowly, he determined to attempt to quicken them by a private address to one of the British ministers. George I. being on the point of travelling through Holland, attended by Lord Stanhope and other noblemen, *Dubois* resolved to throw himself in his Lordship's way. He therefore repaired to the Hague, on pretext of making a purchase of books and paintings; obtained an interview with Lord S.; took an opportunity of turning the conversation to the state of political matters; and dwelt forcibly on the expediency of a good understanding and even of a treaty of alliance between France and England, under existing circumstances. Lord Stanhope having expressed his regret that so desirable an arrangement should meet with opposition in the mind of his master, from a suspicion that the Duke of Orleans had co-operated in the late attempt of the Pretender, *Dubois* insisted that the Duke had, in reality, done nothing in favour of that Prince, and would have publicly avowed his opposition to the enterprise, could he have so acted without offending a very numerous party in France.

'" Your ambassador, Lord Stair," he added, " had at all times free access to the Duke, and ought to be able to apprize his Majesty of the falsity of such rumours. As well might the Regent have taken offence at the language which you chose to hold against the French government in parliament, but which he had no hesitation in considering as nothing more than a necessary preliminary to the imposition of the taxes required for the public expenditure." " You do well," said Lord Stanhope, " to allude to those speeches, which I assure you have been much exaggerated by public report. The real ground of difference between the governments lies in the personal feeling of the King; who cannot help thinking that the Regent is ungrateful, and secretly disposed to foment discontents among his subjects." " Be assured," replied *Dubois*, " that the Regent has no such disposition. Do you not observe how anxious he is to accelerate the conclusion of the treaty of alliance now under discussion? You demand the removal of the Pretender from Avignon into Italy; we accede to it: but remember that it is a severe sacrifice not only for the sympathizing heart of the Regent, but for the numerous well wishers of that unfortunate prince in France: — in short, it is a step not to be taken until we can satify the French nation that it is accompanied by a treaty calculated to insure the general tranquillity." " The residence of the Pretender,"

Pretender," replied Lord Stanhope," is in my opinion a matter of very little consequence; the great difficulty lies in your requiring the king to sanction the articles of the treaty of Utrecht: — a treaty which is obnoxious to the majority of the English people, and the odium of which, fortunately, does not at present attach to him." *Dubois* here broke off the conversation; expressing regret at the existence of so formidable an obstacle, but inwardly satisfied that the negociation was likely to take a favourable turn.'

The motives to a good understanding between France and England at this juncture were very urgent on both sides. Philip king of Spain believed himself to be intitled to the regency of France, and was stimulated by his restless consort, Elizabeth Farnese, to throw all his weight into the scale of the opponents of the Duke of Orleans in France. George I., on his part, was but lately settled on his throne; and the kingdom contained a formidable body of partizans of the Stuarts, whose influence, had the Pretender chosen to abjure the catholic religion, would have given that monarch very serious disquietude.
A second interview taking place between Lord Stanhope and *Dubois*, the former pointed out the mistaken course hitherto pursued by the French negotiators, who had failed to win the personal confidence of the king.

'"You must by no means imagine," he added, "that his Majesty is unconscious of the benefits to be expected from a good understanding between France and England: — so far from it, he is sensible that, if we can depend on your sincerity, you will be the most useful ally that we can have. The well informed among the English nation are satisfied that nothing solid is to be gained *even by a successful war against you;* for, were we and our allies enabled to strip you of your frontier-provinces, the English would never think of retaining them, aware that they would be nothing but a burden. Your grand object, therefore, should be to give the king some unquestionable proofs of the sincerity of your offers."'

Dubois listened attentively to these observations; and, having answered that the Duke of Orleans would not lose a moment in following up this course, he departed forthwith to Paris: where he urged the Regent to send an immediate declaration that the views of England should be fulfilled with respect to Dunkirk and the proposed canal of Mardyke. The demolition of the harbour of Dunkirk having been stipulated at the treaty of Utrecht, Louis XIV. had intended to comply with the letter of the treaty, but projected the substitution of an artificial for a natural harbour, with a slight variation of the locality. The Regent's ministers, however, were less ardent in this scheme; both from a wish to avoid offending England and from a consideration of the ex-

pence,

pence, which, it was now found, could not be less than 1,500,000l. sterling. In their solicitude to conclude the treaty at present in discussion, they sent *Dubois* to Hanover, where George I. then was (August 1716,) with Lord Stanhope; and, on arriving there, he was received into that minister's house, with the view of carrying on the negotiation without exciting the jealousy of the envoys of other courts, particularly of the Emperor, whose designs were very opposite, and who had just received a great accession of influence in the eye of diplomatists, by the victory obtained by Prince Eugene over the Turks at Peterwaradin. By this time, George I. and his counsellors were of opinion that it would be less unadvisable to confirm the articles of the treaty of Utrecht than to follow a different course, a change which inspired *Dubois* with sanguine hopes of success; and he wrote on the same day to the Regent, in terms which afford a curious specimen of his ardour in business:

> 'A circumstance that has occurred this afternoon has, in my opinion, changed matters for the better. God grant that the same impressions may hold until we are enabled to set our hands to the treaty! All that I require at present of your Royal Highness is strict secrecy until the affair be settled, and immediate expedition in dispatching a person to London with instructions to give up the disputed points about Mardyke. I beseech your Royal Highness to recollect that the delay of a single day may hazard the settlement of a measure of all others the best calculated to preserve the peace of the kingdom. My station shall be here until the return of the courier whom I now send you, and I shall be in a *tremor* until the definitive signature; since, till that takes place, every moment must have its danger. I entreat you to send, without the loss of a single day, a person to London; and to apprize him that his merit in the discharge of his commission will consist, not in stipulating conditions of eventual advantage to you, but in bringing the matter to a speedy conclusion. I would even give up a portion of the *time that I have to live*, to save delay on this occasion. Such a treaty once signed, you might listen with indifference to the sarcasms of your opponents. If you secure the good will of England on the easy condition of guaranteeing the succession of the house of Hanover, you carry a main point for a trifling sacrifice. The guarantee given to you in return by his Britannic Majesty, with regard to the succession to the crown of France remaining in the present line, (to the exclusion of the Spanish branch of the house of Bourbon,) ought, in my opinion, to be introduced clearly and openly into the treaty; and a conviction of the importance of this negotiation will bear down with the public at large the ridicule which the Parisians may attempt to throw on such a clause.'

The views of the English cabinet being similar to those of France, the principal conditions were soon settled, and *Dubois* was enabled to proceed from Hanover to the Hague for the purpose of obtaining the accession of Holland to the alliance. George I. was so pleased with the ardour of *Dubois* in a cause relating to the interest of his family, that he received him to dinner in company with his daughter, the Queen of Prussia, who happened to be at Hanover on a visit. The Dutch, always desirous of tranquillity, were sufficiently disposed to join in this measure, but were apprehensive of giving offence to the Emperor, who had become their immediate neighbour since the acquisition of the Austrian Netherlands.

> 'The Austrian ambassador,' said *Dubois*, in a letter to the Regent, 'is busy day and night; he goes from one minister to another, declaiming against the proposed alliance, and using every possible argument to dissuade the States General from it. I am the more uneasy at this because Lord Stanhope has admitted that, unless the alliance be definitively adjusted by the opening of parliament, neither he nor Sir Robert Walpole will have influence enough to ward off the attacks of Opposition. I entreat your Royal Highness therefore to use every exertion to accelerate this business, for the dread of its failure deprives me of my rest, and unfits me for action at the time when it is most wanted. I am out of all patience at the old notions and common-places introduced into my instructions from home, at a moment when every thing depends on promptitude and on the confidence reposed in a person on the spot. It is folly to attempt reasoning on things at a distance. *Mitte sapientem et nihil dicas.*'

At last, after much consultation, the Dutch government signed the treaty in the beginning of January 1717, equally to the satisfaction of George I. and of *Dubois.* The Abbé waited on his Majesty when returning through Holland, and was admitted to familiar conversation with him on public and private affairs; a point deserving of notice, because the steady solicitude of *Dubois* to cultivate a friendly understanding with England was a principal cause of his future elevation. No measure could have influenced more materially the tranquillity of Europe than the conclusion of this treaty at the time in question. It prevented the extension of the alarming hostilities concerted by *Alberoni*, and paved the way for a cordiality between the two greatest powers in Europe, which lasted, with very little interruption, until the end of the ministry of Cardinal *Fleury;* when the tempting prospect opened to French ambition by the disordered state of Germany prompted Louis XV., in an evil hour, to send his armies across the Rhine.

In return for his diplomatic exertions, *Dubois* was appointed, in September 1718, to the station of secretary of state for foreign affairs; and Mr. Craggs, then one of our secretaries of state, lost no time in congratulating him on his elevation.

'29th *September* 1718.

'"The king received yesterday the news of your appointment, and orders me to send you his immediate congratulations. He considers it as the best intelligence that has reached him for a long time; and he is now satisfied that no one will have the power of interrupting the cordiality in which he desires to live with the Regent. In return, we are in hopes that his Royal Highness will now have very little trouble from the opposing party in France, since the two kingdoms will be ruled with as much concurrence of object as if governed by the same ministers. Rumours may go abroad, but to our ears they will be like the noise of distant waves to seamen in a safe harbour."'

Dubois was scarcely placed in his new station when he had the good fortune to discover the dangerous intrigues of the Spanish ambassador, *Cellamare*, against the Regent. The consequence was a cordial concurrence with England against *Alberoni*, a declaration of war from France against Spain, and a suspension of that family-alliance which it had cost so much blood and treasure to establish under Louis XIV. The important services rendered by the new secretary, and the speedy overthrow of the alarming designs of *Alberoni*, had the effect of fixing *Dubois* firmly in his post: but they could not satisfy his ambition, which was as ardent in his 64th year in pursuit of new offices and power, as if he had the career of a long life before him.

The French nation was at this time divided into two parties by the religious quarrels about the constitution *Unigenitus*. The party called Jansenists ventured to oppose the pretensions of the court of Rome, and to assert the independence of the Gallican church; while the Molinists held a contrary course, supported by the majority of strict religionists, and by the veneration inspired by the memory of Louis XIV. It was curious to see *Dubois*, a stranger to controversial learning, and, as it was generally supposed, to religion of any kind, embrace a party with all the ardour of an enthusiast: but he felt that his influence at court would be greatly increased by clerical honours; and he lost no time in joining the side from which they were to be expected. He aimed at nothing less than the rank of Cardinal; — in the pursuit of which he was doomed to experience many more mortifications and delays than had attended the negotiation of the triple alliance. Half of the publication before us is filled with an account of the various engines that were set at work, and the endless obstacles that were encountered, during the three years in which this affair was in agitation. At one time, we have the strange spectacle of the British cabinet effectually interesting itself in the disposal of a catholic dignity, viz. the gift of the Archbishopric of *Cambray* to the Abbé *Dubois*, which was bestowed on him in the year 1720; at another, we see the interference of the Emperor and the King of Spain obtained for the man who had been most active in thwarting their favourite views; while, to crown the whole, the Pretender, at that time residing at Rome, is induced by pecuniary grants from France, first to use his utmost influence for *Dubois*, and afterward to take the strictest care to conceal it from the world lest his co-operation should reach the ears of George I. Various reasons concurred to cause this delay at the court of Rome. The low origin of *Dubois*, his bad morals, his apparent dereliction of the clerical profession, and still more the points successively attained by keeping a person of his influence in a state of expectation, all tended to retard the much coveted distinction. In the long dispatches passing between Paris and Rome on this subject, we find *Dubois*' agent writing in a mysterious language, and designating him (vol. i. p. 290.) by the name of *Madame de Gadagne*; until the post-master-general, who, it seems, in those days as since under *Bonaparte*, had no scruple in opening dispatches, judged it his duty to apprize the Regent of this suspicious denomination. After this disclosure, *Dubois* writes thus to his correspondent:

> 'I hope that your next will contain an apology to me for taking up this business without the permission of the Regent, and in defiance of my express prohibition. In the sequel, you will write either on the plan of concealment hitherto practised, or in plain terms, whatever you wish his Royal Highness to know of the progress of the business. As for the circumstances which it would not be proper for his Highness to know, do not entrust them to the post, but reserve them scrupulously for a private opportunity.'

In the farther progress of this negotiation, we find the agent of *Dubois* pointing out to him (vol. ii. p. 7, 8,) the diplomatic measures to be taken at an expected congress; with the view of preserving to the Pope the territory claimed by the crown of Naples. This grave advice is followed by a curious recommendation. "The second means of quickening this business is to send off, on receipt of this letter, a messenger with a present of books for his Holiness. Fifty guineas expended in this way might do much: but you would have to send them by the way of Germany, lest the fumigation practised on account of the plague in the direction of Marseilles should spoil their appearance." — A subsequent letter from *Dubois* mentioned the necessity of adopting more urgent language towards his Holiness. 'As it is important that the Pope should come to a determination, and fulfil his promise before the expected discussion at the Congress, you must not hesitate in using towards Clement XI., on the first opportunity, that peremptory language without which he never seems to form a decision.' This letter was scarcely dispatched when the Pope terminated his earthly career, and *Dubois* received the following lines from his ever vigilant correspondent:

' "I was in hopes of having the Pope persuaded to take *in his last moments* the step which we wished; and I must acknowlege that Cardinal *Albani*, grieved as he was at his uncle's sufferings, kept his eye steadily on him with a view to the opportunity of obtaining this favour: but his Holiness remained in a state of delirium. The grand point now is to form a proper bargain with the man to whom we are to give our interest in the election, and to make your promotion a preliminary condition." '

The bargain was made in the way proposed; and the new Pope, Innocent XIII., was pledged by a written promise in favour of *Dubois*. Still, obstacles occurred from such a variety of quarters, that it was whimsically said that both virtue and vice had conspired against the long desired honour. The negotiation continued until the autumn of 1721, when the failure of Law's projects threw the French finances into the utmost disorder, and deprived the government even of the funds necessary for the payment of the troops. *Dubois*, however, prosecuted his favourite scheme, and forwarded to Rome a sum raised with great difficulty on his personal security. He wrote thus to his agent, the Cardinal *de Rohan*:

' *Paris*, 23d *July* 1721.

'I send you a bill of exchange for 10,000 pistoles,' (about 5000l. sterling,) 'a sum at present worth at Paris as much as 100,000 six months ago. I borrowed this money on my private account; to have applied to the Regent would merely have been to open his veins without obtaining a drop of blood. We have fallen into the dreadful extremity predicted by our financial prophets, in which we are without money even for the most urgent demands. I must entreat you, therefore, to appropriate this sum only in the event of one of two cases; the first, to fulfill engagements contracted for a favour done and not to do; the second, to meet your personal wants.'

The time, however, was now come when disappointment and doubt were to cease; and the next intelligence from Rome notified the nomination of *Dubois* to the rank of Cardinal. Still, the impossibility of satisfying an ambitious mind was never more strikingly exemplified than in his case. All the dignities hitherto attained were valuable in his eyes only as far as they conduced to his farther elevation. His next object was to be declared prime-minister of France; an appointment which the Duke of Orleans well knew would excite the discontent of almost all the grandees about the court. Nevertheless, *Dubois* had by this time obtained an almost uncontrouled ascendancy over the Regent, who was desirous of enjoying the consequence attached to his high station without the fatigue attendant on business; and it is said, likewise, that the Duke, seeing the time of the King's majority approach, was not sorry to have in the case of *Dubois* a precedent for governing the kingdom under the title of prime-minister; which it would suit him to assume after the expiration of his office of Regent. Be this as it may, whether the Duke acted from calculation or from facility, *Dubois* was gratified in his wish, and was declared prime-minister in August 1722; after having succeeded in removing from the Regent's presence (vol. ii. p. 236.) the representatives of the greatest families in the kingdom. One of these, the Duke *de Noailles*, happened to meet *Dubois* when the latter was on his way to take his seat in council in precedence of the peers, and immediately after the princes of the blood: "This day," said he to *Dubois*, "will be noted in our history; it is the day on which you, Sir, take your seat in the council, and the grandees chuse to abandon theirs." His power with the Regent was such as to accomplish the exclusion not only of political rivals, but of those associates of the Duke's convivial hours whom he suspected of a disposition to make unfavourable insinuations concerning him. These changes were generally preceded by Memorials to the Regent, dictated by the Cardinal himself, in which it is amusing to see (vol. ii. p. 277.) this notorious delinquent recommending himself for his *réputation de bonne foi* and his services in the cause of religion.

Another notable circumstance in these epistolary documents is the ardour with which this veteran politician was always pursuing some new object. He now fixed his attention on the young king, with as much eagerness as if his time of life had justified the hope of remaining the permanent minister of that prince; and we find him writing as follows to *Destouches*, the *chargé d'affaires* for France in England.

'3d *Oct.* 1723.

'I must beg of you to employ an intelligent friend to look out a number of curiosities from India and other foreign parts, whether natural or in workmanship, the cheap as well as the costly. Of these you will form lists, and transmit them to me regularly from week to week, as your information comes in. You will please to make a point of employing some person to do the same with regard to articles of jewellery, remarkable watches, and other curiosities manufactured in London, noting carefully the price of each. You will do the same as to prints; I wish to make a large collection of those which exhibit dresses of ceremony; viz. those of kings, queens, knights of different orders, noblemen, magistrates, and even country-people. You will get them coloured in London, if the art of colouring be well understood there. You will not, however, make purchases till you have transmitted the lists. — My object in all this is partly to have whatever I may want in this way in my own possession, but more particularly to command the means of ordering from time to time things likely to be agreeable to the young king, worthy of his notice, and suitable to his age, that I may have it in my power to please him (*lui faire ma cour*) by making daily presents.'

Dubois was not, however, destined to a long enjoyment of his last elevation. His constitution is said to have been injured by the effects of early intemperance, and must certainly have received rude shocks in the political ferment of his later years. Some feverish attacks (vol. ii. p. 68.) awakened the attention of those calculators who watch, with so keen an eye, the prospect of a political change, but did not induce *Dubois* to take any effectual measures for preserving his health. He had even the imprudence to appear in the beginning of 1723 on horseback at a review of the household-troops, but was soon obliged to dismount in great pain. On being carried home, his surgeon declared that the motion of the horse had burst an internal abscess, and that an immediate severe operation was necessary to prevent mortification. The Cardinal, though said to have been at all times extremely afraid of dying, insisted that the operation was unnecessary, and, on being pressed to it by the Regent, is reported to have answered, "*Monseigneur, je n'ai point de courage contre les douleurs du corps.*" The Duke's sympathy, however, was only apparent, if we may believe the saying attributed to him on the next day, on the appearance of stormy weather, "*Voila un temps qui, je l'espère, fera partir mon drôle.*" Certain it is that the Cardinal died on the following morning, 10th August 1723, aged 67; and that the Duke lost no time in procuring for himself the appointment of prime-minister to Louis XV. in the room of *Dubois*, and in writing to his former associates to return to his conviviality, now that the cause of their removal was no more. "*Morte la bête, mort le venin,*" were the expressions which he used in writing: but, on meeting them, he discouraged all allusion to the influence of his late favourite, by saying, as he shook them by the hand, "*Pax vivis, requies defunctis.*"

The Cardinal is understood to have left property to the amount of 100,000l. sterling, which went to an only brother, and afforded an ample fund for the performance of the solemn services enjoined by the Catholic religion for the repose of his soul. The person appointed to write his epitaph had a puzzling task, but acquitted himself adroitly. Having recapitulated all his titles, spiritual and temporal, he added, "*Solidiora et stabiliora bona, Viator, mortuo precare.*" His memory was too little respected to make it advisable for the Regent to permit the delivery of any funeral oration. In fact, Paris was on this occasion over-run with those epigrams and licentious couplets, which were so highly in vogue in that æra of looseness and frivolity. The indifference of *Dubois*' moral character had the effect of making certain writers, particularly the Duke *de St. Simon*, represent him as a mere intriguer, and incapable of serious application to business: but a different testimony is given by Marshal *Villars*, and other memoir-writers of the time; whose declaration is sufficiently substantiated by collateral evidence to place its accuracy beyond doubt.

'"*Dubois*," says the Duke *de St. Simon*, "was a little man, thin and slender, with a visage like that of a pole-cat. All the vices, falsehood, avarice, debauchery, ambition, and adulation, seemed to contend in him for the mastery. He carried falsehood so far as to persist in unblushing denials even when detected in the act. Notwithstanding a habit of stammering, his conversation was instructive, animated, and insinuating; and it would have made him an object of attraction, had not all this been obscured by a cloud of deceit, which seemed to exhale from him at every pore, and made people afraid even of his gaiety."'

This portrait may be overcharged: but no description could well exceed with regard to the excesses of passion to which he occasionally gave way. He was sometimes seen to run up and down his room, striking the furniture with his hands, and tearing the tapestry from the wall. Notwithstanding the great extent of his occupations, he aimed at personally superintending a variety of minute departments. He marked, on a paper which he intitled *Journal de son Eminence*, the method which he had prescribed to himself for the employment of every day in the week; and of this paper one copy was stuck against the bottom of his bed, and another near the chimney of his cabinet. His labours regularly began at five o'clock in the morning; and, after an interruption of a couple of hours (from one o'clock to three) for dinner and conversation, they were resumed, and lasted till seven in the evening. His habits, with respect to the table, were very sparing: but in pleasures of another kind the case is reported to have been different. He had grossly abused his influence with the Regent, by accumulating a variety of clerical benefices in addition to the high dignity of the Archbishopric of Cambray: but the charge of receiving a pension from England, which the credulity of some writers has asserted to amount to 40,000l. sterling per annum, appears to be wholly without foundation. He was not indifferent to literary honours, being a member of the principal Academies, and acquainted with several eminent writers, particularly *Fontenelle*: to whom he took occasion to say, at the time of his greatest elevation, "Could I have my wish, I would live in a fifth story, with a *gouvernante* and an income of 60l. a year."

The editor of this work has acquitted himself extremely well in his introduction, and in the notes subjoined to the first volume; and it is therefore the more extraordinary that he has trespassed in other respects, particularly in omitting a table of contents, or index, and in failing to connect the different divisions of the correspondence by explanatory notices. We have, for example, no account (vol. i. p. 243.) of events during the eighteen months in 1717 and 1718 which elapsed between the signature of the triple alliance and the appointment of *Dubois* to the secretaryship of foreign affairs. Similar chasms and abrupt transitions occur in other parts; so that, while we willingly bear testimony to the authenticity of the materials, and to the judgment discovered in the political remarks of M. de Sevelinges, we must express our disappointment at his want of care and arrangement in the capacity of an editor. On the whole, however, this is a publication of considerable interest to different classes of readers; — to the student of history, as affording an illustration of several obscure passages in the beginning of the last century; and to the philosophic observer, as displaying the restlessness of the mind under circumstances which are usually supposed to bring with them the means of gratifying all our desires.

Art. II. *L'Égypte sous les Pharaons*, &c.; *i. e.* Egypt under the Pharaohs; or Inquiries respecting the Geography, Religion, Language, Writings, and History of Egypt, previously to the Invasion of Cambyses. By M. Champollion, jun. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris, De Bure. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 4s.

Ægypt has always been a favourite topic in French literature. The unsuccessful expedition of Louis IX. in 1248 has long associated the territory in the minds of Frenchmen with the memory of national exertions, and has permanently created a curiosity about its fortunes and a desire for its dominion. Perhaps it would be well for Europe if the French were suffered to acquire the country: since the destructive character of the climate would render it an efficacious drain for the superfluous young men of France, who otherwise become troublesome neighbours; and the sympathetic licentiousness of French and Ægyptian manners would facilitate an amalgamation of the people, that might be favourable to the re-civilization of an important corner of Africa.

Concerning the early history of Ægypt, nothing is distinctly known: it has never been critically investigated: no one judicious commentator has hitherto surveyed, appreciated, and arranged the scattered particles of information. The Alexandrian antiquaries found in the archives of the provincial temples of Ægypt some lists of judges, or suffetes, who had superintended particular districts; and they published these catalogues of names, disfigured by Greek orthography, not as lists of cotemporary heptarchs who preceded (2 Kings, vii. 6.) the consolidation of Ægypt, or who governed it as local viceroys, but as the muster-roll of successive dynasties, who are unwarrantably supposed to have been kings of the country at a period at which it can have had only crocodiles for inhabitants. The writings of Syncellus, Eusebius, and Africanus, are not the proper sources of primæval history; which can be inferred only from the Jewish Scriptures, from Herodotus, and from some passages of Josephus, such as that in the controversy with Apion, where he extracts the testimony of Manetho, or earlier writers. Nor can these authorities be reconciled without careful comparison and bold conjecture.

The oldest document extant respecting Ægyptian history is the *Memoir of the House of Joseph* contained in the book of Genesis; extending, with the exception of the thirty-sixth chapter, from the twenty-seventh verse of the eleventh chapter to the end of the book. The German Scripture-critics have considered it as highly probable that this memoir was composed by Joseph himself, with the assistance of family-documents derived from Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob: but it throws little other light on Ægyptian history, prior to the admirable administration of Joseph, than that the country was governed by Pharaohs, or kings, whose revenue consisted of a tythe in kind, which enabled them to store up corn against times of dearth. A great portion of this hoarded produce appears to have been employed in feeding sacred animals; or, as we should express it, was thrown away to the crocodiles and cattle, when it began to grow musty: but much use was also made of it in feeding persons employed (Numbers, xi. 5.) about public works; and, concerning one of the pyramids, it was recorded how many carrots and onions had been distributed among the workmen engaged in its construction. This is the great secret of Ægyptian art and superstition, that the public revenue was hoarded in treasure-cities, (Exodus, i. 11.) and could only be employed in feeding human labourers, or animal-divinities. The priests were the store-keepers and tax-gatherers of an excise on produce. Antient historians class all public institutions under the name of religion, and call those regulations superstitious, of which they did not perceive the utility or the necessary connection. It does not appear that Ægypt was polytheistic in the time of Joseph: on the contrary, he marries, at the recommendation of the sovereign, the daughter of the priest at On. Now the priest at On, as we know from the history of Jethro, and from the testimony of Isaiah, was a worshipper of Jehovah; a monotheist, not a polytheist. Hence it may be inferred that the early Pharaohs, called by Herodotus *Menes*, *Nitocris*, and *Mœris*, were of the same religion with Moses.

Herodotus states that, after Mœris, (Euterpe 101.) who built a new porch to the temple of Vulcan, and who also erected vast pyramids, flourished Sesostris. “This Sesostris,” continues Herodotus (ii. 102.) “as the priests tell us, was the first who, in long boats, sallied from the Arabic gulf to overturn the settlers on the Red Sea. Proceeding farther, he came to a frith, which was not navigable on account of its shallows. Thence returning to Ægypt, according to the records of the priests, and raising a numerous army, he overspread the continent, and overturned all the impeding nations. Among those whom he found brave and desirous of liberty, he set up pillars, indicating by letters his name and country, and how he had subverted them by power: but, when he took their towns without resistance, he made similar inscriptions on the pillars, with the addition of the sexual parts of a woman to indicate their cowardice. In the Syrian Palestine, I myself (affirms Herodotus, ii. 106.) have seen some of these pillars extant, inscribed with letters, and with the effeminate emblem." Herodotus proceeds to say that Sesostris passed from Syria into Europe, subduing Scythians and Thracians; and that he left a colony on the river Phasis. The Ægyptians maintain, he adds, that the Colchians descend from these troops of Sesostris; which is the more credible because they have black complexions and woolly hair, and practise circumcision, a rite which is peculiar to the Colchians, Ægyptians, and Æthiopians. (Euterpe 108.) " Sesostris, being returned into Ægypt, made this use of his captives; they were obliged to drag stones of immense length for the temple of Vulcan, and were compelled to dig at those ditches with which Ægypt is intersected. Thus was Ægypt regularly divided, and a square plot of ground was assigned by the king to each Ægyptian; a quit-rent was imposed to be paid yearly; and, if any person suffered by the falling short of the inundation of the Nile, he might certify it to the king, and the king sent commissioners to measure the dry land, and to abate the tax on it: hence arose geometry. Only this king could master Æthiopia. He left a monument before the temple of Vulcan, two stone statues of thirty cubits."

If Herodotus was a credulous historian, he is always a faithful reporter; and his opportunities of information were comprehensive, having travelled into Ægypt and Syria, and consulted on the spot the archives of several temples. It is the opinion of Michaelis that by *Vulcan* Herodotus means *Jehovah*. He calls (ii. 141.) Sethos, or Hezekiah, a priest of Vulcan. Vulcan was the god of fire; and Herodotus, in common with other heathens, supposed that the shekinah, or holy fire, which in the temples of Jehovah was kept burning on the altar, was the proper and real object of adoration. Phtha, whence the Greek *Hefaistos*, was one of the names given by the Ægyptian monotheists to deity.

Diodorus Siculus (i. 34.) states that Sesostris was also called Sesosis; that he was educated with others of his own age to military exercises, and was sent by his sovereign with an army into Arabia; that he was distinguished for an hereditary piety to Vulcan; that he divided his country into nomes, or tribes, or provinces; that he made an expedition into Libya, and then into Æthiopia; and that at length he undertook the conquest of Asia and of the world. Diodorus makes these conquests extend to the Tanais and the Ganges; and from Babylon his Sesostris brings captives, who found the Babylon of the Ægyptians, build temples without number, dig canals and reservoirs, and fortify Ægypt against the Syrians and Arabs. When he was at his brother's house, an

attempt

attempt was made to destroy it by fire; and Sesostris commemorated his escape by erecting statues before the temple of Vulcan at Memphis.

This account of Diodorus is partly transcribed from Herodotus, and partly derived, it should seem, from Ctesias; who is quoted (i. 36.), and to whom the marvellous particulars apparently belong. There was a Ctesias of Cnidus, captured by the Persians, who became physician to Artaxerxes Memnon; and, about the time of Alexander's expedition into Asia, a work was circulated under his name, of which Photius has preserved some extracts, but which appears to have been an European forgery. Diodorus himself lived too late to be an authority; and his want of criticism saps the trustworthiness even of the testimony which he merely repeats.

After having condensed and combined these two statements, and dismissed all that is marvellous, inconsistent, or otherwise improbable, it may be presumed that the origin of Sesostris, or Sesosis, was on the eastern bank of the Nile, which was called the land of Goshen, and near Memphis, as his brother resided there; that he passed the Red Sea, explored its farther coast, returned among his own people, and at the head of an army of rebel-slaves (γλίχομενοι περὶ της´ ἐλευθερίης) conquered Palestine, and divided his jurisdiction into nomes, or tribes; that he set up pillars in memory of his success, which remained when Herodotus travelled; and that he was distinguished for piety to Vulcan, and for a long reign.

It is remarkable that all these particulars should be true of the Jewish chieftain Joshua. In concert with Caleb, (Numbers, xiv. 6.) he went to explore those countries beyond the Red Sea, to the conquest of which he guided his followers; he divided his conquests with geographical superstition (Joshua, xviii. 10.) into nomes or tribes; and pillars, those probably which Herodotus saw, were erected by him (Joshua, vi. 20.) in Gilgal. As these coincidences of adventure are too numerous, too peculiar, and of too extraordinary a kind, to have befallen several individuals, it is most rational to suppose that the history of Joshua is the basis of all that has been related concerning Sesostris; and the reputation of his victories might easily travel to Greece in such a form as to give rise to the extant exaggerated accounts. If this be admitted, it will follow that the Mœris of Herodotus, who was the immediate predecessor of Sesostris, was cotemporary with Moses; that the Nitocris of Herodotus, the Amesses of Manetho, flourished during the two generations which intervened between Joseph and Moses, and was consequently a sister of the Pharaoh who knew not Joseph; and that the Meines of Herodotus (or, as Diodorus Siculus calls him, Mneves,) was the patron of Joseph. Thus it appears that the earliest testimony, which Herodotus could procure concerning Ægypt, reaches only and exactly as far back as the memoir of the house of Joseph which is included in the book of Genesis. These oldest records of the human race ought to be received and held sacred in all nations.

To Sesostris, Herodotus assigns as a successor Pheron; then Proteus; and then Rhampsinitus: after which comes a government by twelve judges, whose names are perhaps previously recorded as if they had been successive sovereigns. All the information of Herodotus concerning this period seems to respect exclusively the eastern bank of the Nile; and to include the rulers of Palestine, or the shepherd-kings, among Ægyptian dynasties. As English towns or parishes once kept at the public expence a town-bull; so, at the Ægyptian temples, certain choice animals were fed out of the public granaries for the purpose of breeding: but this cattle-worship, as it is called, implies no stupid idolatry of the beast, nor does it prove the polytheism of the votaries. In the temples of Serapis, which were unquestionably monotheistic, the bull Apis was regularly fed. If we omit in the Jewish religion those parts which the Jews acquired during their Babylonish captivity, — the hatred of images and the doctrine of a future state, — a more exact idea will be attained of the early religion of Ægypt than that which at present prevails. Astronomical emblems and zodiacal signs have repeatedly been mistaken for pagan divinities; and phallos-worship, however coarsely idolatrous, is rather allegorical than polytheistic.

The eastern bank of the Nile was originally governed patriarchally, by heads of clans called judges, sometimes more and sometimes less numerous. Psammitichus is stated (Euterpe 152.) to have consolidated twelve of these jurisdictions, like the Saul of the Israelites, and to have bequeathed them to his son Necho. He was succeeded by Psammis, and next by Apries. These Pharaohs are mentioned in the Jewish Scriptures by the names So, Necho, and Hophra. The domination over the western bank of the Nile seems to have begun in Upper Ægypt, and with the accession of Psammitichus, and to have descended the stream progressively. The rebellious usurpation of Amasis, who was secretly supported by the Persians, and the subsequent invasion of Cambyses, reduced Ægypt to a Persian province. Of the condition of the country under the Babylonian emperors, no very clear idea can be drawn from the Greek writers: but the administration seems to have been vested in an hereditary aristocracy of priests.

The work before us is exclusively devoted to the Ægypt of the Pharaohs; and the two preliminary volumes of it which have at present reached us are confined to the topography of the country. It is an Ægyptian geography of Ægypt, which did not before exist, because we have been accustomed to use Greek, Latin, and Arabic names of places, sometimes translated and sometimes corrupted from the Coptic; native or antient names, but differing so widely from each other, and from local usage, that a polygot-map becomes necessary to understand the traveller or the historian.

The Copts were an Æthiopic people, who descended the Nile, and colonized the borders of the inundated valley; they form the original central population of Ægypt: phallos-worship and circumcision were hereditary rights among them. The shepherd-clans, who roved about the land of Goshen, may have planted their Mesopotamian language even in the temples of Memphis; and the Greek settlers from the Mediterranean may have accustomed the entire Delta to an European idiom: but the properly Ægyptian nation is that which spoke the dialect still retained in Upper Ægypt, and called Coptic. A curious book on this language was published by M. *Quatremère* at Paris in 1808, intitled "*Recherches sûr la Langue et la Littérature de l'Egypte*:" which may be considered as having shewn the radical identity of the extant Coptic with the primæval language of the antient Ægyptians.

It is to the re-establishment of the Coptic names of towns, nomes, sovereigns, and divinities, that M. CHAMPOLLION principally directs his attention. He observes, in his introduction, that Herodotus and Strabo often translate into Greek the Coptic names of towns, as Ηλιουπολις, Ερμησπολις, Πηλουσιος, and Κροκοδειλωνπολις, which occur in the historian; or Αφροδιτησπολις and Πανοσπολις, which occur in the geographer: but these last two places are called in Herodotus by their Ægyptian names, Χεμμις and Αθαρβηχις, which are corruptions of the Coptic *Chmim* and *Athor-Baki*. These translations have had the pernicious effect of occasioning Ægyptian denominations for the powers and attributes of nature to be confounded with Greek deities. — The author examines the *Oedipus Ægyptiacus* of *Kircher*, and dismisses it with considerable scorn, as a work not bottomed on sound Coptic erudition. For instance, the word *Pitabir*, which *Kircher* gives in Coptic letters as equivalent to the Greek word *nome*, or shire, does not exist in the Coptic tongue, and is a mere congregration of letters imagined by *Kircher*; and *Ptosch*, in the present author's opinion, is the word on which *Kircher* should have fixed. Many similar mistakes in etymology are indicated: but, still, *Kircher* had the merit of opening the way to Ægyptian literature by his *Lingua Ægyptiaca restituta*, printed at Rome in 1643. He found a worthy and learned successor in Father *Bonjour*, who printed at Rome in 1699 a meritorious "*Exercitatio in Monumenta Coptica, seu Ægyptiaca, Bibliothecæ Vaticanæ.*"—*Jablonski*, whose *Pantheon Ægyptiacum* was published at Frankfort on the Oder in 1750, is also supposed to have rendered great services to our knowlege of Coptic antiquity: but here, again, M. Champollion finds much room for criticism, for contradiction, for doubt, and for imputations of etymological error and injudicious inference. *Rossi*, whose *Etymologiæ Ægyptiacæ, Romæ*, 1808, yet enjoy a fading reputation, has increased the mass of circulating blunders, by trying to assign an Arabic origin to Coptic words. In short, the whole field of Ægyptian antiquity still requires an explorer, and a guide; a great revolution awaits the entire theory of Ægyptian archæology.

The author's attention to this branch of literature was first announced in the excellent dissertation of *Silvestre de Sacy*, "*Lettre au Sujet de l'Inscription Egyptienne de Rosette*, 1802:" M. *de Sacy* having detected in that inscription the Coptic words *Chemi* Ægypt, *Phouro* king, *Nierpheoui* temples, *Web* priest; and M. Champollion those of *Tweb* priestess, *Ep* tribute, *Mes* begotten, and *Annouti* divine. Under the protection of a master so advantageously known by the comprehensive curiosity and judicious penetration of his researches, it is natural to expect a disciple of no ordinary endowments; and M. Champollion has not rendered a slight or a transient service to the classical antiquary.

The manuscripts consulted by him for this geographical vocabulary of Ægypt are considerable in number. The martyrdom of Saint Apa-Ari, the martyrdom of Peter Bishop of Rakoti, the *Historia Lausiaca*, a Coptic dictionary at Saint-Germain, a second manuscript of the same kind in the Theban dialect, and those in the library of the Chevalier *Nani* of Venice, have severally furnished tributary elucidations, and have assisted in preparing this critical polyglot-gazetteer. Several names employed in the classic writers assume in this author's orthograpgy a wholly new character. Ερμησπολις becomes *Ptimenhór* in one place, and *Sahmoun* in another; which variations are learnedly explained; and indeed his commentary is truly essential to a right understanding of the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin writers who have treated concerning Ægypt. The Coptic alphabet has thirty-one characters: of which eighteen are alphabetic signs common to the Greek and Coptic languages; six are Greek letters, not originally known to the Ægyptians, and occurring only in words of Greek or Latin origin; and seven belonged to the antient Ægyptian alphabet, and had no equivalent representative in the Greek catalogue of letters.

Chapter the first treats of the natural and political divisions of Ægypt. The Red Sea is called in Coptic *Phiom anschari*, which *Jablonski* translates "the sea of reeds:" but it is here contended that the words signify the *Red* Sea, and that we actually translate the primæval name. — Chap. ii. compares the several names of the country. The word *Ægypt* seems to be of Greek origin, and to signify estuary of the Copts; the Hebrew denomination was *Missraim;* and the native designation *Chemi.* The name *Hephaistia*, or the land of Phtha, whom the Greeks mistook for their Vulcan, was also a favourite poetic epithet. — Chap. iii. treats of the Nile, and here a proper attention is shewn to the comments of Rennell on the expeditions patronized by the African Society. The Nile is called Ωκεανης in Diodorus Siculus: but M. Champollion would read Ωκεαμης, and derive the word from the Coptic *Oukame*, black, — the Black River; and in fact its mud is remarkably black. It was called *Iaro*, or the river, by the natives: but the meaning of the word Nile is not satisfactorily ascertained: probably the name has descended from Abyssinia downwards. When the Nile begins to overflow, mice, rats, and similar animals, which breed in corn-fields, fly before the inundation towards the mounds on which storehouses and barns are erected; and hence arises the necessity of keeping numerous cats to destroy the intrusive vermin. This having formerly been done by public authority, and the lives of cats protected by law during the season in which they are apparently superfluous, the Ægyptians have been accused of cat-worship.

Upper Ægypt is the subject of the fourth chaper. The Copts called it Maris, or south land. Herodotus names the two mountains, between which the Nile enters Ægypt, (Euterpe 28.) *Crophi* and *Mophi*, which words are explained to mean in Coptic the *bad* and the *good;* probably because the navigation is safer on the side of Mophi. The crocodile is called *Amsah* in Coptic; whence perhaps the female proper name Amesses. *Tachamsah* is the city of crocodiles, called Tachompsos by Herodotus. Apollinopolis is here said to be the modern Atbo, or Edfou: the remarkable monuments of this place attest its antient splendour. *Chnubis*, which is the name of a city, as well as of the god adored there, is here supposed to signify the *good intelligence*, or the golden. It is in either case, seemingly, an epithet of the sun, and not descriptive of any peculiar deity, as we conceive Anubis to be. *Ammon*, again, signifies *the light*, and is only a varied denomination of their one supreme God, worshipped under the emblems of fire, light, the sun, and the creative organs. In the account of Thebes, or Tapé, a temple of Pan or Ammon is described, in which this divinity is represented under the form of the Greek Priapus. In the account of Sais, it is observed that Neith, or Naet, mistaken by the Greeks for Minerva, is an epithet signifying the *benevolent*, and possibly designates those temples of the monotheists in which sick women were attended by a medical priesthood. Rome had a temple of *Minerva medica*. An important correction of D'Anville occurs at p. 245., relative to the situation of Bopos.

A second section of this chapter treats of Middle Ægypt. Lycopolis becomes the city of jackals, which was one of the sacred animals, or creatures whose lives were protected by law for purposes of public utility. At Oxyrynchus, and at Latopolis, the facts are established that the Greeks mistook for fish-worship a certain attention to the nilometers; and that in both these places the great Pan, the soul of the whole, the universally vivifying intelligence, was really adored. At Nilopolis, it is maintained that Osiris was the Nile; and that the worship, as it is called, given to the river, is rather the practical attention required of the priesthood to define and to promote the distribution of its waters. Respecting lake Mœris, M. Champollion observes that its desiccation, not its formation, seems to be the work of art. Concerning Memphis, curious extracts are given from *De Sacy*'s translation of Abd-Allatif.

A third section of this chapter treats of the Thebais, and gives a list of the thirty-six nomes into which the author presumes the Ægypt of the Pharaohs to have been divided.

With the second volume begins the fifth chapter, which is assigned to Lower Ægypt. Here every thing was better known, both to the Greeks and to the moderns; and here are accordingly fewer received errors to discuss, to denounce, and to correct. Lower Ægypt, we are told, and we confide in the assertion, was, during the age of the Pharaohs, only an estuary opening into the Mediterranean. Even in Homer's time, the Pharos-island was far from the main land: the Delta is a gift of the Nile; it is called in Coptic *Tsahet*. The seven mouths, or branches, of the river are successively explored. Heliopolis offers an interesting article. Pelusium is stated to be the modern Peremoun: Heroopolis to be the modern Awaris; and Tanis to be the antient Zoan.

Chapter vi. delineates and defines the nomes, or district-divisions, of Lower Ægypt. At one time, it had only ten: but, with the progress of desiccation and settlement, they increased to twenty-nine.

The seventh chaper describes the provinces dependent on Ægypt at various periods. The Oases of Libya are investigated; and the Birbe, or temple of Siouah, visited and described by Browne, is pronounced to be the second temple of Ammon, mentioned by Diodorous Siculus as contiguous to the greater. *Niebuhr*'s description of the Djebel Mokatteb is quoted: he takes it for a cemetery: but the situation might favour a suspicion that this monument has some connection with the constructions undertaken to make a canal for uniting the Red Sea and the Nile.

In chapter viii. the author treats of those names of places of which the situation is still uncertain: it is a list of *desiderata* to be studied by the antiquary and the traveller; and, probably, several of these "unknown quantities" will yet be reduced to precise definition and proof.

The work terminates with a synonymic table of the geography of Ægypt under the Pharaohs. The Coptic name is given first, then the Greek, then the Arabic, and then the European. This list comprehends the names of mountains, of certain reaches or branches of the river, of shires, and of towns; sometimes the Greek synonym, sometimes the Arabic, and sometimes the European is unknown, and therefore omitted. It reduces to a compendious table the scattered information which has been brought together in the various chapters of the preceding text. This dissertation is important to the Scripture-critic, but might have been rendered more valuable. It has perhaps the fault of too much disdaining to throw light on the Jewish records: the prejudices of an infidel, not the equity of a philosopher, characterizing this minute portion of the book. *De Sacy* would have deemed it meritorious to have studied more attentively the true sources of Ægyptian history.

ART. III. *Histoire de l'Empire Ottoman*, &c.; *i. e.* The History of the Ottoman Empire, from its Foundation to the Peace of Yassi, in 1792. With Documents, and a Map of the Ottoman Empire. By M. DE SALABERRY. 4 Vols. 8vo. Paris.—London, De Boffe. Price 2l. 8s.

IN the literary world, the author of this history is already known advantageously by several Notices of Oriental Manuscripts belonging to the Library of the Louvre, and by various admirable pieces of oriental biography, derived from unprinted materials, and inserted alphabetically in the *Biographie Universelle*. He has increased his claims on public gratitude by this compendious yet elaborate performance.

Of several historiographers of the Turks with whose works we were previously supplied, the most familiar in our country is Knolles, who published in 1610, and who collected, with meritorious profusion, all that the Byzantine writers and the modern Italians had furnished concerning the Turks. The few extracts from native oriental authors which occur in his vast chronicle are probably communications from his cousin Howe, who was ambassador's secretary at the Porte. This history was continued by *Ricaut*, with inferior comprehension of research, and similar patience of detail. Their joint labours repose together on our library-shelves in a vast folio: but we dread to plunge into such a world of waters, in despair of ever swimming to the shore.

The Venetian *Sagredo* published in 1677 a more compendious but less complete history, intitled *Memoire Istoriche dei Monarchi Ottomani:* which relates the series of events that intervened between 1300 and 1644, at which period he quitted the Levant, Ibrahim I. then reigning.

The Cossack *Demetrius Cantemir* wrote, in Latin, an historical sketch of the *Growth and Decay of the Ottoman Empire*, derived from native historians of the Turks, and especially from Saad Effendi of Larissa: but, being unskilled in comparative history, this author commits great blunders. His work reaches to the peace of Pruth under Achmet III., and was translated into English by Tindal in 1734.

More recently, the Abbé *Mignot* drew up an epitome of Turkish history, terminating with the reign of Mahmoud in 1750. It was agreeably illustrated by the *Abrégé Chronologique de l' Histoire de la Maison Ottomane*, which M. *Digeon*, interpreter at Cairo to the court of France, translated from the Arabic, and printed at Paris in 1781, with an accompaniment of tales and other translations. *Mignot*, however, was too early in his career. The Abbé *Toderini*'s excellent work on the *Literature of the Turks* had not then been given to the public: *D'Ohsson* had not drawn his *Picture of the Ottoman Empire:* nor had the *Memoirs* of Baron *de Tott*, the *Travels*, or *Observations*, of *Reicowich*, and the *Stato Militare dell' Imperio Ottomanno* of *Marsigli*, opened to the view of Europe the present condition of the provinces which compose the incoherent chaotic materials of the Turkish empire.

M. DE SALABERRY has enjoyed the advantage of these accumulated hoards of information, and has used them with propriety. Negligent of detail, and contented with the leading features of events, he relates, in due proportion, the prominent incidents of Turkish history; and he relates them with perspicuous and picturesque distinctness. His first chapter sketches the origin of the Turks, their arrival in Natolia, and the condition in which they found the Greek empire. Soliman-shah, Ertogrul, aud Othman, are successively characterized. Of this last eminent sovereign, from whom the Ottoman dynasty is proud to deduce its descent, the following portrait is drawn:

> 'Thus died the first sovereign of the Ottoman race. He left no treasures, having spent them all in rewards and in beneficence. Indeed this charitable prince never ceased to scatter alms on the widow and the orphan; the indigent found daily in his palace a table spread for their accommodation; he himself often assisting at the meal and waiting on the guests, as well from a principle of humility as from the instinct of simplicity and kindness. According to his best historian, the mufti Sad' Eddin, it often happened that he would strip off even his own mantle, and give it to the poor. As brave as he was fortunate, Othman had great views and great talents; and, still better, great virtues. Prudence, moderation, justice, have surrounded his name with such respectful recollections, that, on the succession of each of his imperial descendants to the throne, it has been customary from age to age for the people to salute their new sovereign, by wishing that he may possess the goodness of Othman.'

The second book narrates the progress of the Ottomans, the taking of Nicea and Nicomedia, and the remarkable marriage of Orchan with the daughter of the Emperor Cantacuzene. The entrance of the Ottomans into Europe, their alliance with the republic of Regusa, and their conquests in Europe, are detailed. Soliman and Amurath next accede to the throne; Adrianople is taken; and the seat of government is transferred from Prusa to that city. The institution of the Janissaries, and the league of the Christians against Amurath, close the section.

Book iii. opens with the accession of Bajazet I., who completes the conquest of Natolia, and wages war in Moldavia. Prince Stephen distinguishes himself. The growing alarms of the Christians occasion a league under Sigismund King of Hungary. The battle of Nicopolis, the distress of the Greek empire, the appearance of Tamerlane, and the influence of his victories on the Ottoman empire, give great life and interest to this part of the author's narrative.

Book iv. The death of Bajazet is succeeded by an anarchy or inter-regnum of ten years, during which his sons contend for the succession. Mohammed I., Ibrahim Khan, Amurath II., and the false Mustapha, successively arise. The siege of Constantinople and of Belgrade, and the battle of Varna, are related. The first revolt of the Janissaries, and the abdication, restoration, and death of Amurath, terminate this division.

In book v., the accession of Mohammed II., the siege and taking of Constantinople, and the extinction of the Greek empire, give occasion to an interesting comparative survey of the Christian and the Mohammedan world. Mohammed II. visits Athens, is deserted by Scanderbeg and opposed by Huniades, takes Negropont, Rhodes, Otranto, and the Crimea, and dies the terror of Christendom. — Book vi. Accession of Bajazet II. Conspiracy of his brother. Revolt of the Janissaries. War with the Mammelukes of Egypt; and with the Venetians. His assassination, and its consequences: he attempts to abdicate in favour of Achmet, but Selim is preferred. — Book vii. Selim puts his brothers to death. War of Egypt, conquest of Syria, taking of Cairo, massacre of the Mammelukes, submission of the Arabs. Triumph, pride, death, and character of Selim. — Book viii. Soliman I. accedes to the throne, takes Belgrade, and besieges Vienna. War of Persia and India. — Book ix. First treaty of alliance between the Ottomans and the French. Soliman marries Roxalana. Catastrophe of his sons. Siege of Malta raised. Death of Soliman. A splendid panegyric on this eminent sovereign is pronounced by M. DE SALABERRY. He reigned long; and long reigns have always found, by the natural progression of patronage, a mass of gratitude favourable to their eventual reputation: but the executioner of his sons, and the slave of his mistress, would not, we think, have here been ranked so high among meritorious sovereigns, had not the present author's nationality been inclined to wink at his defects. Soliman, the founder of the long friendship and alliance between France and the Porte, is the real object of the historian's panegyric. He praises well, however, and brings out important facts to the honour of his hero. The entire history of this reign throws light on the age of Charles V., and supplies many chasms in the narrative of Robertson; whose work, though deservedly celebrated, is overvalued, being deficient in research, partial to the ecclesiastical bigotries of the conductors of the Reformation, and negligent of the literary greatness of a period which first involved the European nations in conflict as the partisans of literary factions.

Book x. Accession of Selim II. The funeral obsequies of his predecessor are well described.

'When Soliman expired, the grand vizir Mehemet thought that his duty to the empire extended beyond the life of a master who was no more, and renewed the example of Ibrahim on the death of Mohammed I. He took care that the delusion of the army respecting the existence of Soliman should be prolonged until the arrival of Selim: the Jew physician, and the slaves, who had witnessed the end of the sultan, were privately put to death; and the meals were daily served up at the imperial table with the customary solemnity, to the sound of instrumental music. Meanwhile, a Chiaou was dispatched to Constantinople to invite the new sovereign to come speedily and take possession of the empire. Mehemet now broke up the camp: a report was spread that the sultan had become sick; and his curtained litter preceded the march of the army. The vizir, who did not quit its side, occasionally approached, and promulgated, in the name of his master, the directions which he was supposed to receive.

'It was at the gates of Belgrade that the heir-apparent met the army and the body of his father. Mehemet uncovered the litter, which a cloth of gold hid from every person; and the troops learned at once that Soliman was no more and that Selim II. was their sovereign. In a moment, the march became a funeral procession; and all the emblems of glory and of mourning mingled together, to do honour to the memory of the prince whom the empire had lost. The standards and the trophies of arms taken from their enemies surrounded the coffin; and the body-guards escorted it, one of their officers carrying on the point of a lance the turban of Soliman, to which was attached a horse's tail, in token that he fell in war. The janissaries and the sepoys followed, their arms reversed, and their banners trailing. The martial instruments were ordered to play slow and melancholy tunes. The horses of the late sultan were covered with housings of black velvet; and these noble companions of the fatigues and dangers of their master were made to shed tears by means of a powder blown into their nostrils.

'The whole corporation of the Ulemas received the coffin at the gates of Constantinople; and all the Bashaws accompanied it to the lofty mausoleum, which had been prepared for it by Soliman himself while living. During forty days, the ministers of the law came to repeat the whole Koran; and the tomb was covered with a cloth of gold, which was changed every Friday, and daily strown with fresh flowers. Such were the obsequies of Soliman, celebrated with a pomp that was usual in the east, and surpassed only by the rare magnificence that was displayed after the death of Alexander the Great, or of Ptolemy Philadelphus.'

The league of the Christians against Selim, the battle of Lepanto, and the death of this prince, are next related. The reign of Amurath III., and the embassy of Queen Elizabeth, occupy the rest of the section.

Book xi. Mohammed III. and Achmet I. are the reigns here detailed. — Book xii. Mustapha. Amurath IV. — Book xiii. Ibrahim. Mohammed IV. — Book xiv. War of Sobieski, and deposition of Mohammed IV. — Book xv. Soliman II. Achmet II. The tolerance of the Mohammedans at this period is applauded. — Book xvi. Mustapha II. Rise of the Russians; taking of Azof by Peter the czar; deposition of Mustapha. — Book xvii. Achmet III. Charles XII. of Sweden seeks refuge at the Porte. — Book xviii. Prince Eugene's success. Deposition of Achmet III. — Book xix. Mahmoud. Rise of the Wahabees in Arabia. The following anecdote occurs in this section: (vol. iii. p. 242.)

'One day, Mahmoud was crossing the canal *incognito*, accompanied only by the bostangi-bachi, when he met a saik with four oars, in which was seated a person voluptuously stretched on a *silkty* of sattin, supported on two embroidered elbow-cushions, and smoaking a rich pipe, the end of which was of amber and gold. Two boys, kneeling before their master, were supplying it with Syrian tobacco, and the pounded wood of aloes. This was the Jew Zonana, commissary to the janissaries. The bostangi-bachi, who hated him, remarked to his master the insolence of this ostentation. "Fool that thou art," replied Mahmoud, "seest thou not that this man forms a part of my glory? It will be recorded of my reign that even the Jews, who are the outcasts of all other nations, enjoyed, under my sway, both opulence and liberty."'

Book xx. Osman III. Mustapha III. The portrait of the vizir Raghib is masterly. — Books xxi. xxii. and xxiii. The campaigns of 1768 in Servia, and the consequent Russian warfare, which produced a cession of the Krimea to the Russians, are related with military detail in these three sections. — Book xxiv. Death of Abdul Hamid. Accession of Selim iii. Peace of Yassi.

To this last book is attached, under the title of a *Conclusion*, a general view of the present state of laws, manners, institutions, and civilization among the Turks. From this sketch, which is highly eloquent and panegyrical, we shall quote as an amusing specimen the description of their habit of smoaking tobacco: (vol. iv. p. 168.)

'This plant, the fashion for which so rapidly became a habit in Europe, and from a habit a want, was early naturalized on the Ottoman soil; and the coasts of Syria and the fields of Morea were enriched with a new harvest. But the voluptuous slave of the sultans disdained the disgusting practice of inhaling dust, and adopted tobacco to taste it in the form of vapour. Magnificent in all his enjoyments, he contrived to make it instrumental to the splendour as well as to the sensuality of his pleasures. His laborious luxury perforated the straitest stalks of the cherry and the jasmine; and these tubes, emptied of their pith, are henceforth to transmit the perfume of dried leaves consuming by a slow fire.

To receive them, the potter is invoked to provide a bowl of clay, or porcelain, over which the goldsmith fastens a grated door. The wood is not to touch the lips of a delicate master; amber fetched from the Baltic has this exclusive privilege. Surrounded by an odoriferous cloud, which rose-water and aloes have transformed into ambrosia, a proud vizir might fancy himself a god, if the smoak did not remind him how fugacious and how empty is human felicity. But this happiness, which a humble plant confers and renews every day at all hours, is alike in Turkey the share of the vizir and the subject, of the master and the slave. The good musulman reckons this pleasure among the duties which hospitality requires; and this friend of men, seated on his divan, offers smoaking to every one who accosts him. Thus the grave and majestic Ottoman knows how to ennoble even the vulgar practices of life.'

Notes to the several books, or sections, indicating the authorities on whom the author has relied, or transcribing illustrative passages, are printed together at the end of the fourth volume. To the *Justificatory Pieces*, as the quoted materials are called, succeeds a well-made index.

Mably, in his Theory of History-writing, has observed that, whatever be the period or subject chosen, the annalist should endeavour to detect the leading current or main drift of the incidents; and should then imbue himself with that particular form of bias, or prejudice, which tends to value highest, and to be most interested about, the chief business of the history. Let a zeal for democracy animate the chronicler of Athens; let a solicitude for territorial aggrandizement be held important by the historian of antient Rome: the annalist of the Popes should have at heart the magnificence, the diffusion, and the propagation, of religion: the biographer of the Medici should take an exclusive delight in the progress of literature and art. Where unity of purpose is wanting in national or individual pursuits, the interest excited by them is feeble; the motive of all the business and bustle is forgotten; and the heroes of the historic drama dissolve into a band of players. M. DE SALABERRY has attended to this ingenious rule, and has given by means of it a great degree of vivacity and interest to his narration. He has assumed, or adopted, all the prejudices of a Turk; and he enjoys with a sort of antichristian zeal the alarm of Catholic Europe, when the imperial Vienna trembles on the edge of submission to the Crescent. He speaks of collective Christendom with a contemptuous jeer, and applies the term "infidel" with Turkish insolence to all the Trinitarian sects. This has so far not a bad effect that it is dramatic; it explains and conveys the spirit of the people of

Constantinople with concise and speaking fidelity. Indeed, in all the arts of costume, M. DE S. is well versed; if he describes a battle, just those weapons which peculiarize the people and the age are noticed; and if he is writing the eulogy of a sultan, just those passages are translated from native authorities, which are most characteristic of oriental sentiment and literature. In short, his history of the Turks is such as they may translate and read with pleasure and approbation. No slight knowlege of the works of eastern writers was necessary to compile the collected information; and no cursory stay in the country can have sufficed to familiarize, so completely and intimately, the exterior features of its scenery and the inherent spirit of its government.

This lively work is an important acquisition to general literature, and deserves to be translated.

ART. IV. *Histoire de Christine,* &c.; *i. e.* The History of *Christina,* Queen of Sweden: with an Historical Sketch of Sweden from the earliest Period to the Death of Gustavus Adolphus the Great, Father of the Queen. By J. P. CATTEAU-CALLEVILLE, Member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm, and of several other Literary and Philosophical Societies. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 690. Paris. 1815. London, De Boffe. Price 16s.

FOR a number of years past, the statistical inquirer has been acquainted with the author of these volumes as one of the best informed writers on Sweden, Denmark, and the adjoining states. Our last notice of his labours (vol. lxix. p. 471.) regarded a publication on the Baltic Sea, to which we had the satisfaction of bearing a favourable testimony; and we are now to weigh the merit of his performance in a department of composition possessing more attraction to the general reader, we mean political biography. He has chosen, as the object of his labours, a female who was sufficiently conspicuous in her day both for rank and singularity of character; and if her history be not likely to excite the attention of the milder and more sympathetic of her own sex, it possesses a strong claim to the consideration of the political philosopher. It is due to M. C.-C. to premise that he has by no means sought to deck out *Christina* in borrowed colours, or to court the favour of his female readers by keeping in the back-ground those features which may be ungracious in the character of his heroine. His impartiality therefore admits of no question, and the chief defect of his work consists in an imperfect selection and arrangement; a deficiency which, it must be confessed, was naturally to be expected from an author who had been hitherto occupied by other tasks than the structure of a narrative.

The details are divided into the following parts: *Historical Sketch of Sweden, from an early Period to the Death of Gustavus Adolphus in* 1632. — *Life of Christina from her Birth, in* 1626, *until she became of Age according to the Law of Sweden, viz. in* 1644. — *Her Reign from* 1644 *to* 1654, *the Time of her Abdication.* — *Her Life, as a private Individual, from* 1654 *to* 1689, *the Year of her Death.*

Christina, on coming of age, found herself surrounded by able statesmen and successful commanders: but her anxious wish was to bring to a speedy close the long war which had been waged between the Protestants and the Catholics in Germany. Her love of literature made her sigh for the time in which circumstances might enable her to devote herself entirely to it; and she consequently accelerated, as much as it was in her power, those protracted negotiations which terminated in 1648 in the treaty of Westphalia, and the progress of which had been retarded by a difference of views with her Catholic ally, France, respecting the arrangement of the affairs of religion in Germany. Having accomplished the work of pacification, *Christina* began to think seriously of carrying into effect her plan of abdicating, and passing into private life. Various motives appear to have prompted this determination; the dread of party-divisions in Sweden; a desire of acquiring fame by so rare an example of self-denial as the abandonment of a throne; and, above all, an anxiety to be mistress of her own time, and the unfettered directress of her actions. She kept her intention very private, to prevent the formation of parties which might have thrown difficulties in the way of *Charles Gustavus*, her nearest relation and the undoubted heir to the crown: but the French ambassador, suspecting her design, gave notice of it to his court; and he was instructed to do every thing in his power to prevent the execution of a project that was calculated to engender disunion among the Swedes, the steadiest allies of France. The Swedish ministers, particularly *Oxenstiern*, urged a similar request, but without success. To their representations that such a step would be productive of national discord, *Christina* replied, "In my opinion it will be the most effectual method of preventing it. I am determined, you know, not to enter into the marriage-state: but the prince, on coming to the throne, will, no doubt, marry; and all your apprehensions of a disputed succession will be removed." Such, however, was the urgency of the Senate, and so ardent were their expressions of attachment to *Christina*, that she consented to postpone the execution of her plan, and to retain the government for a few years longer. The reluctance of her subjects to part with her originated both in respect to her father's memory and in the dread of being involved in fresh wars on the accession of *Charles Gustavus.* We extract a few particulars relative to the military services of that prince, and his early attentions to *Christina.*

'Prince *Charles Gustavus* returned to Sweden in 1647, after having served under General *Torstenson* in Germany. He had given repeated proofs of his courage and patriotism; which, joined to his high extraction, made him aspire to the honour of the Queen's hand. He now communicated to *Christina* the hopes which he had ventured to cherish from his earliest years, and reminded her of the interest which she had taken in him when he was accustomed to engage in the amusements of the court, under the auspices of her mother, *Catherine.* The Queen answered that this sort of engagement, made in infancy, was not in any way binding on her; that she had not decided on a matter of such importance, and could not do so until she had reached her 25th year, or the period of her coronation: but that, if she then refused him her hand, she would give it to none other, and would renounce marriage entirely. She added, however, that she would use all her endeavours to get acknowleged, as heir to the crown, a Prince whose eminent qualities she so highly appreciated, and with whom she was already connected by the ties of relationship. *Charles Gustavus* replied that, if she persisted in refusing him for her husband, he would abandon his title to the crown and bid adieu to Sweden for ever. *Christina* taxed him with romantic extravagance, and would not pledge herself any farther. She gave also vague and indefinite answers to the States; who, being desirous of her union with the Prince, repeatedly requested her to take that step.

'Though *Christina*, however, had not given a satisfactory answer on the subject of her marriage with *Charles Gustavus*, she persisted in her design of procuring for him the right of succession. In order to furnish him with an opportunity of displaying his abilities, and to accustom the people to respect him, she appointed him Generalissimo of the Swedish armies in Germany, with an income of 8000l. sterling a year. He accordingly left Sweden, taking with him a reinforcement of 8 or 10,000 men, and directed his march towards Bohemia to join General *Königsmarck.* His presence diffused a new ardour among the soldiers. Young and active, and elevated above the other Generals not only by his title but by his birth and the prospect of a crown, he was possessed of all the means of causing the Queen's will to be respected, and of repressing the murmurs of rivalship and jealousy.

'Christina had been asked in marriage by *Ulric* and *Frederick*, the two sons of *Christian*, King of Denmark; by *Frederick William,*

liam, elector of Brandenburg; and by *John Casimir* of *Poland.* There also appeared among the other candidates, *Prince Ragotzki*, *John* King of Portugal, and even *Philip* King of Spain. All these noble suitors had met with refusals either from the Regency or the Queen herself. *Charles Gustavus* continued to be marked out by the general wish of the nation: but *Christina* had already hinted to him the little inclination which she had for marriage. She had indeed formed some time before a settled aversion to such a connection, as incompatible with that independence of which she was so ambitious; and she frequently went so far as to say that she would prefer death to a state of matrimonial subjugation. Being pressed one day to marry by several persons at court, for the sake of settling the succession, she replied, "Talk to me no more about it: there might be born to me a Nero as well as an Augustus." Still she had so much regard for *Charles Gustavus*, she valued so highly his qualities, and saw him so closely allied to the throne by his birth, that she lost no time in taking the necessary measures for securing the succession to him and his descendants.'

From this time forwards, that prince maintained a prudent reserve, and lived in the island of Oeland, a stranger to the cabals of Stockholm. *Christina* kept possession of the crown during three years after her intended resignation: but, towards the end of 1653, she was observed to become pensive, and to decline in her attendance at cabinet-meetings. The French ambassador, suspecting once more that she meditated to retire, took the liberty of intreating her to pause, but received his answer in a letter composed in a tone indicative of a fixed determination:

"You are aware that the project in question has been uppermost in my mind during a number of years; the lapse of time, and particularly the late events, have tended to confirm it. I have directed all my proceedings to this object, and have brought them now to a point without ever having felt a moment's hesitation. I am not, as you may imagine, actuated by a desire of applause; on the contrary, I apprehend that so masculine a step is not likely to be praised in a female. The world at large are strangers to my motives, and to my particular frame of mind, for I have never been explicit but towards yourself and another friend of equally liberal views: "*sufficit unus, sufficit nullus.*" I am indifferent to the opinion of the mass of the public; and, amid all the leisure which I hope soon to enjoy, I shall find sufficient time to publish a statement in answer to those who may blame me. I will employ my hours in examining my past actions, and in correcting my errors, without finding in them matter for either surprize or regret. What pleasure shall I have in recalling those occasions in which I may have been the instrument of benefit to my species, and of severity where severity was necessary! My rule has been to prefer the safety of the public to every private consideration. I have possessed a throne without pride, and I quit it without regret.

You need not, therefore, be apprehensive of my repenting such a step: my happiness is, I trust, beyond the power of fortune.

> " *Sum tamen, O superi! felix; nullique potestas*
> *Hoc auferre Deo* . . . ."

Carefully as *Christina* delayed the communication of her plan, her subjects could be no longer in doubt when they saw transported to Gottenburgh the chief part of her books and private property; and when they learned the nomination of additional senators, a step which could have no other view than that of securing an acquiescent majority. At last, in February 1654, the Queen convened the senate at Upsal, and declared to them her fixed determination; observing: "I do not wish for your advice but your concurrence, in order that, by our joint exertions, Prince *Charles Gustavus* may be confirmed in the crown." The Senators, finding intreaties unavailable, proceeded to make arrangements for the income to be received by *Christina* in her state of retirement; of which the amount was fixed at 60,000l. sterling. One of the most remarkable circumstances of this proceeding was the absence of *Oxenstiern*, who declared loudly against the abdication, and made no scruple in giving it as his opinion that a day would come when the Queen would repent it. The ceremony of the resignation of the crown was performed, with great form, 16th June 1654; and it was necessary for her to take the crown off her head with her own hand, the minister appointed for that purpose being unable to bring himself to do that which he considered as an act of presumption. At the close of the formality, and after the delivery of a farewell-harangue by the Queen, the president of the different orders advanced to kiss her hand, and the representative of the class of peasants was observed to burst into tears. A few hours afterward, *Charles Gustavus* was crowned, and struck a medal with the inscription, "*A Deo et Christina*."

' *Christina* was in person rather below the middle size, but this deficiency was fully compensated by a noble carriage, an easy gait, and a firm countenance. Her large blue eyes were full of expression; her nose was finely Roman; her mouth, though rather large, was well formed; and her teeth were very fine. The sound of her voice, though commonly mild, was raised to a higher pitch when she gave an order of importance, or when she conversed on grave and serious subjects; her air was often melancholy, without discomposing the serenity of her looks; she attached little importance to dress; and her toilette seldom occupied her above a quarter of an hour. A comb and a piece of ribbon formed the whole of her head-dress; and her hair, thus carelessly hanging down, added much to the interest of her countenance. Her indifference about her exterior was indeed such that she was sometimes to be seen with her gown torn, and her sleeves not unfrequently spotted with ink, which she had used in writing. To those who wished to persuade her to pay more attention to dress, she answered briefly that such things ought to be left to persons who have nothing else to do. Her temperance was exemplary; and, faithful to the habits contracted in her early years, she partook of the simplest dishes, and drank nothing but water. She was accustomed to remain in bed only for five hours, but, when fatigued during the day, she slept an hour after dinner. Business, study, and reading, occupied the greater part of her time: but she engaged in amusements as far as her health rendered it necessary; and she gave occasional *fêtes*, to support the brilliancy of her Court.

'It was in excursions on horseback and in the chase that the Queen took the greatest pleasure. She managed her horse with the agility of the most expert rider, yet without any wish to make a display. She feared neither heat nor cold, and occasionally remained hunting for ten hours at a time. In the interior of the palace she was present at dramatic representations and ballets, taking sometimes a part in the latter. She had several maids of honour, of the first families in the kingdom, but she seldom associated with them, as in general she preferred the conversation of men. Being one day questioned about this, she replied, "If I prefer men, it is not because they are men, but because they are not women." She bestowed, however, marks of distinction on several ladies of the court, and in particular on Miss *Ebba Sparre*, who was accounted the greatest beauty in the country, and in whom were united with beauty the most rare modesty and sweetness. Miss *Sparre* became the *confidante* of the Queen, who always continued firmly attached to her.

'The vigour of mind, the intrepidity, and the courage which the daughter of *Gustavus Adolphus* had already displayed in her earliest years, under the eye of her father, raised her above every servile fear. She declared that she knew of nothing in the world so dangerous as to disturb the tranquillity of her mind; and no indisposition prevented her from attending to affairs of state. One day, after having undergone blood-letting, she held a council of her ministers as usual, and remained with them five hours: and, though troubled with a feverish affection for nearly a month, she did not for a moment desist from taking a share in the administration. — In 1647, during the celebration of divine service in the palace-chapel, a man made his way through the croud, and rushed violently towards the spot where the Queen was on her knees. Count *Brahé*, perceiving him, called out to the guards to stop him: but, knocking down some, and driving others aside, he was about to leap over the low railing that separated the court from the rest of the assembly, and had approached with the utmost rapidity till within a few yards of *Christina*. The Queen, who saw by the looks and gestures of the man that he had some design against her, called the captain of her guards, who had just time to seize the fellow by the hair, and, having searched him, found on him two knives without sheaths, one in his sleeve, the other in his pocket. *Christina* did not discover the least emotion, but gave, with the greatest calmness, the necessary orders for preserving tranquillity. It was soon found that this man, a school-master in Stockholm, was deranged, and had no accomplices.

'Some years after this strange occurence, the Queen, having gone at four o'clock in the morning in the month of June to look at the men of war equipping in the harbour of the capital, placed herself, the better to examine the vessels, on a plank, with Admiral *Fleming* by her side. The Admiral approached so near to the edge of the plank that, his foot slipping, he fell into the water, and, having hold of the Queen's robe, he dragged her Majesty with him. *Steinberg*, the master of the horse, threw himself into the water, and seized a corner of *Christina*'s robe; others ran at the same time to her assistance, and succeeded in rescuing her. Although she had been carried in head foremost, and had swallowed a great quantity of water, she was so little concerned that, while they were employed in rescuing her, she called out that they should assist the Admiral; and instead of reproaching him, she expressed her satisfaction at having been the means of preserving his life by being herself exposed to the greatest danger. When brought back to the palace, she refused to be put to bed, or to accept of any refreshment: dining afterward in public, and conversing with great coolness on the accident which had threatened her life.

'Every part of the character of *Christina* seemed to point out the daughter of a hero; and the warriors covered with laurels, who had shared in the exploits of *Gustavus Adolphus*, or assisted in maintaining his glory, often assembled around her, and took a pleasure in rendering her homage. At the council, the senators were astonished at the ascendancy which she could assume on all occasions of importance: combining prudence with firmness, she decided without embarrassment, after having heard the opinions of others and taken time for reflection. Expressions of mistrust, however, were sometimes allowed to escape her in a manner too pointed to be overlooked. She dispatched business with the greatest promptitude, and would not allow the functionaries of state to pass in indolence or pleasure the time which they owed to the public. Zealously attached to justice, it was her wish that the magistrates should strictly conform to its rules, and those who acted otherwise were exposed to severe reprimands. Rarely did she pardon criminals; yet she was often heard to say that she never signed a death-warrant without tears.'

At the early age of twenty-eight, *Christina* forsook a regal for a private station, and proceeded to the southward, first to Hamburgh and afterward to the Spanish Netherlands. She made a public entry into Brussels, and soon gave occasion to the remark that the absence of real power had only tended to make her more desirous of affecting the display of importance: but the world was still more surprized on hearing that her entrance into Brussels was speedily followed by an abjuration of the Protestant religion, and the adoption or apparent adoption of the Catholic. This singular change is supposed to have been made for the purpose of acquiring the confidence of the government in whose territories she intended to live, and particularly of the Pope; and this appears to us a much more probable interpretation than the current notion that her imagination was won by the superior pomp of Catholic ceremonies. Be this as it may, she made a point of withholding her motives from the public; and, on reading at a subsequent period a book professing to be a history of her conversion, she inscribed on the margin, "he who has written this is a stranger to the real motives, and she who knows them has never divulged them."

The acquisition of liberty, the novelty of a foreign country, and the incense of flatterers, are said to have made *Christina* forget for a season her characteristic gravity, and give herself up to a succession of amusements. The aberration, however, was only temporary; and she no sooner heard of the animadversions on this unprofitable employment of her time, than she withdrew from the pleasures of the court of Brussels. Her thoughts were now fixed on Rome; a city endeared to her by classical recollections, as well as by affording an opportunity of living without subserviency to any temporal sovereign. The Pope, desirous of shewing every attention to his royal convert, received her with great pomp: his soldiers were under arms; garlands and triumphal arches were erected; and the ladies of Rome came forth in their most splendid attire. She took up her abode in the mansion called the palace of Farnese, and soon rendered it a place of assemblage for artists and men of letters.

Rome was from this time her principal residence, although she varied the scene by two journies to France, and two to Sweden. At Paris, she was treated with the greatest attention by the courtiers, the public characters, and the men of letters. Louis XIV., then in his eighteenth year, (1656,) was brought to meet her; and, though he was at that time a diffident youth, he is said to have excited her favourable prepossession by his looks. On returning to Italy, *Christina* passed the winter at Rome, but came back, as it was supposed, on a political errand, in the next year to France. It was then that she committed an act which, however justified by the guilt of the party, excited, by the manner in which it was effected, the most serious complaints against her: — we mean the capital punishment of her secretary *Monaldeschi*, in the palace of Fontainebleau. Having caused his private letters to be brought to her, she found that he was not only acting a perfidious part, but was attemping to make another of her servants incur the punishment that was due to his treachery. On this discovery, she deposited copies of the papers in the hands of the senior ecclesiastic at Fontainebleau, and, having allowed some days to elapse, she summoned before her the secretary and the ecclesiastic in one of the halls of the palace. The evidences of guilt being produced, *Monaldeschi* attempted at first to make a denial, and afterward threw himself on her forgiveness. *Christina* heard patiently all that he had to say, but answered that her resolution was taken, and that he must prepare himself, with the aid of the ecclesiastic, for the fate that awaited him. It was in vain that the latter followed the queen out of the apartment, and prayed her to change her purpose: her answers, always deliberate but always expressive of an inflexible adherence to her determination, left him no course but that of returning to the unfortunate *Monaldeschi*, who soon afterward underwent the sentence of his sovereign. — This action called forth much animadversion from the public, partly by its harshness, but more by its apparent contempt of the local goverment. *Christina*, however, could not be brought to acknowlege the necessity of an appeal to any jurisdiction but her own, in any matter that regarded the punishment of her personal attendants and servants; insisting that, with regard to them, she had made no abdication of her sovereign power.

The chief events in her subsequent years were her two journeys into Sweden, the first on the demise of *Charles-Gustavus* in 1660, and the latter in the year 1667. Her enemies whispered, on both occasions, that, while she professed to come only for the purpose of obtaining the arrears of her revenue, her secret wish was to resume the crown: but this idea can scarcely be reconciled with her pertinacity in performing worship according to the Catholic rites during her residence among her former subjects; who, she well knew, were inveterate enemies to that faith. Moreover, the crown of Sweden had not for her the attraction of novelty; and we cannot help thinking that the measures, commonly supposed to indicate a wish of resumption on her part, were little more than political manœuvres to accomplish the humbler object of insuring the payment of that revenue, without which her residence out of her kingdom must be obscure and uncomfortable. With all her philosophy, she was an adept in diplomatic intrigue; accustomed to conceal her real motives; and not more scrupulous than other princes in laying stress on ostensible reasons. This explanation may not, in the opinion of some persons, acquit her of a real design on the crown of

Poland at the time of the vacancy of 1668: but there the object *had* the charm of novelty; and the difficulties were not, as in the case of Sweden, familiar to her mind.

We feel no disposition to enter into the political intrigues of Rome in which *Christina*, it was alleged, took an active part. Her mind continued to the last to be alive to the great subjects of contest between the powers of Europe, as may be seen (vol. ii. pp. 174, 175.) from her correspondence with her agent in the north: "My great anxiety," she said, writing in the end of 1688, "is to learn the result of the expedition of the Prince of Orange. He would not, I am persuaded, have attempted a change in England without a solid support, nor without being almost certain of success." Unfortunately, she was not destined to see many months of the reign of our William III., being attacked in February 1689 with a dangerous fever, and an appearance of erysipelas. Though she seemed to recover, and her strength had undergone so little decay before this attack that she had the prospect of prolonged years, a relapse took place, and caused her death on the 19th of April 1689, at the age of sixty-three. During the whole of her illness, she preserved her characteristic intrepidity and independence. Some time before its fatal termination, she caused a medal to be struck, with the inscription: "*Libero e nacqui, e vissi, e morro sciolto*:" — "I was born free, I have lived free, and I will die so." Her final direction was that her tomb should contain no other notice than of her age: "*Vixit Christina annos sexaginta tres*:" but the Pope made a point of erecting a splendid monument, with an inscription commemorative of her conversion.

'The daughter of the great *Gustavus*, as she used to call herself, had possessed the throne from her cradle. Born and educated to rule, she had held with glory the reins of government during ten years, had not reached the age of thirty, and the faculties of her mind were in their full vigour, when she abdicated the supreme power, seeking for repose, leisure, and independence, and perhaps still more for a celebrity which should be peculiar to herself. But this resolution, although commended by some, was blamed by others, who foresaw its consequences. — *Christina* now found herself removed from that sphere in which she had been placed by birth, education, and the exercise of power. The very qualities which she had received from nature, and which made her appear to such advantage on a throne, were now a burden to her, and were greatly altered in the new circumstances in which she was placed. Her pride and greatness of soul were constantly irritated by contradiction; and she became a prey to distrust, jealousy, and passion. Her penetration and discernment not being now employed on those interests which decide the fate of states, too often descended to petty intrigues and minute calculations: while her imagination, as extensive as it was lively, being no longer exercised on objects of real value, wandered into a labyrinth of chimerical projects.

'If the picture of the life of *Christina* after her abdication offers some unsatisfactory traits, it presents others to which it is impossible to refuse our approbation. In the painful struggles which she was obliged to maintain against a variety of difficulties, she manifested more than once that superior minds can, as it were, master fortune, and triumph over the worst of events. In the last moments of her life, she gave proofs of the elevation of her sentiments, of the firmness of her character, and of the vigour of her mind. She had at her disposal a resource of which she knew how to avail herself, and of which no reverse or disappointment could deprive her; in the bosom of literature and the arts, she found a sufficient compensation and relief; surrounded by the master-pieces of genius, and perfectly qualified to appreciate them, she forgot the caprices of fortune which she had no longer the means of controuling since she had abdicated the supreme power. The respect paid to her by literary men and artists increased her ardour for those interesting occupations, which have for their object the enlargement of the sphere of human knowlege; and which, in exercising the faculties of the soul, confer on it a greater energy, and enable it to take a nobler flight. *Christina*, who to use her own expression possessed nothing at Rome but herself, was caressed by some, feared by others, and esteemed by all.

'Gilbert Burnet, afterward Bishop of Salisbury, who, during his residence at Rome, was frequently admitted to her company, and who has given an account of his travels, represents the palace of the Queen as the resort of politeness and taste. The affability of her conversation, he said, and the great variety of subjects in which she can engage, render her one of the first of the many curiosities to be seen at Rome. — The generosity of *Christina* displayed itself on all occasions: men of science and taste received proofs of it, and the unfortunate never solicited it in vain. She gave subsistence to more than 400 persons at Rome; and the regret shewn by the common people at her death proved how much they were attached to her.

'During her whole career, her lively imagination, her desire of independence, and the inconstancy of her taste, led her into uncommon situations, inconsiderate steps, and sometimes even into contradictions. On some occasions she was great, on others she was only extraordinary. She had doubtless her faults, but they have been exaggerated by malice and envy. Such, for example, are the love-tales circulated under her name: she was not devoid of sensibility to that passion, but she was too proud to indulge in it at the expence of her honour and her dignity. The anecdotes on this subject, that have been related by anonymous writers, are contradicted by authentic memoirs which have appeared in Sweden, France, and Italy. Ambition and the desire of fame were with her the predominant passions, and they served to diminish the influence of the rest. The singularities, and even the errors, with which we may sometimes reproach her, ought not to make us forget the noble characteristics for which she was conspicuous. She added to the glory of a nation that *Gustavus Adolphus* had called to such high destinies; and her reign formed an era of memorable events. The protection which she afforded to real talents was as noble and extended as it was advantageous in its result. She took an interest in the progress of literature and the arts, not from vain ostentation but because she was alive to their importance and utility. Feeling herself the greatest delight in these pursuits, she was capable of forming a judgment of those who engaged in them and of appreciating their labours. Never was there a woman of more learning, and never did a man possess a greater avidity for knowlege. She composed several literary works, in which her character is depicted as clearly as in her conduct.

'On a review of the life of *Christina*, then, considered as a whole, we shall find that this Princess combined qualities the most striking and extraordinary; that she can be compared to no other celebrated individual; and that she is presented to us by history as a phænomenon that will fix the attention of every age.'

The Appendix contains several letters of *Christina*, of which the most interesting are addressed to literary men. These are followed by a short notice of her writings, among which deserve to be mentioned her "Reflections on Alexander the Great;" her "Moral Precepts," and particularly a "Sketch of her own Life to the year 1653." The style of this last production is good, but its great recommendation consists in its impartiality, *Christina* being in the habit of speaking very candidly both of herself and of others. In describing her father, she has no scruple, after an animated enumeration of his virtues, to admit that he was choleric; and that, without being naturally fond of wine, he allowed himself to be sometimes led away by the well known northern vice. This remark gives M. CATTEAU-CALLEVILLE, who has passed a number of years on the shores of the Baltic, an opportunity of mentioning that custom has of late much mended in this important particular; and that it is now as unfashionable among the respectable classes to trespass in drinking at Stockholm, Copenhagen, or St. Petersburg, as it is at Paris or in London.

In adverting to the merit of this work as a composition, we are to repeat that one of the chief recommendations of the pen of this writer, as of that of his fair heroine, is its impartiality. He has indeed permitted on a few occasions (such as vol. i. p. 306.) the insertion of particulars below the dignity of political biography; and he is not always skilful in the management of his narrative, introducing a number of unknown and uncouth names at times when the reader would be better pleased to have his attention confined to characters of notoriety and interest:—but, on the whole, this production, like its author's other works, possesses a considerable claim to the attention of the public; and it suggests, by the rare occurrence of florid and exaggerated description, the idea of an imagination which, though fundamentally French, has been chastened and disciplined by long converse with a people of less sanguine character.

ART. V. *Histoire Critique de l'Établissement des Colonies Grecques*, &c.; *i.e.* A Critical History of the Establishment of the Greek Colonies; being the Work which gained the Prize offered in the Class of History and Ancient Literature by the National Institute, in 1813. By M. RAOUL-ROCHETTE. 4 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1815. London, De Boffe. Price 2l. 8s. sewed.

FIRST among the modern commentators of the classics, *Henry Valesius*, in a note to his *Excerpta Polybii*, (vol. iii. p. 348.) collected the principal antient texts which bear on the question of primæval Greek colonization; and then *Spanheim*, in his work on the *Use of Coins*, (vol. i. p. 572.) commented on the authorities of *Valesius*, and produced additional testimonies. These two learned notes, for they are no more, supplied to M. *Bougainville* the basis of a memoir which was rewarded in 1745 by the Academy of Inscriptions, and published separately under the title *Sur les Devoirs reciprôques des Métropoles et Colonies Grecques;* and of which we offered some account in our xvith volume, p. 377. Since that period, M. *de Sainte-Croix*, in a work *De l'Etat et du Sort des Colonies des anciens Peuples*, has recalled public attention to the subject, and has contributed to call forth two admirable Latin dissertations of *Heyné*, included in the first volume of his *Opuscula Academica.* Accoutred with a panoply forged in the smithy of these accomplished cyclops, the present author sallies into the field: but we fear that he will rather incur admiration for his armour than for his exploits.

'General Considerations' are prefixed, which announce and evolve the plan and distribution of the subsequent history. It is very methodical, and proposes in the outset to trace the various Pelasgic colonies settled in Greece. This is the business of the first volume, which consists of five books, divided into thirty-four chapters.

The fundamental question, *Who were the Pelasgi?* is in our judgment erroneously answered by M. Raoul-Rochette. Surely the testimony of Herodotus is positive that they did not speak Greek. 'Οι Πελασγοι βαρβαρον γλωσσαν ιεντες. What, then, did they speak? We are inclined to answer — *Welsh*; the word Pelasgic being but the Greek spelling of an adjective represented by the Latins in the word Belgie, and by our native orthography in the word Welsh. The Cimmerian or Cumbrian stock is that to which the Pelasgi belonged. M. R.-Rochette admits that the Trojans were Pelasgi, and that they sent into the north of Greece for auxiliaries of their own race and kindred, and found them there: but it has escaped his notice that the Trojan words preserved by Homer, and imputed by him to the language of the gods, are all Welsh, or Erse, which is a dialect of Welsh, as Governor Pownall has shewn in his Treatise on the Study of Antiquities.

The first wave of human population which flowed out of Asia on the European continent must have been the Cimbric; because the nations speaking that language, of which the Bas-breton, the Welsh, and the Erse are living dialects, have by the successive pressure of subsequent waves been pushed into the most western corners of Europe. The ridge of population which first reaches the edge of the continent must have been first propelled from the Asiatic centre; and accordingly the Gauls and Cimbri occur as the foresters, or earliest tenants, of the north of the Euxine, of the north of Greece, and of the north of Italy.

These nations, however, had reached beyond the hunter-state, and had attained the grazier-state, before they left Asia. They every where appear accompanied by goats and oxen: but sheep cannot be traced quite so early among them, whence it should seem that they are of southerly origin, and acquired the pastoral arts in climates that possess no sheep. Migrating as graziers by land, these Cimbric tribes stocked with a rude and scanty roving population the fertile vallies of the interior. Arcadia, Thessaly, and the pastoral districts of every province, were the principal seats of the Pelasgi. — The Hellenes, however, came by sea, in a more advanced stage of civilization, and may be compared with the European settlers on the coast of North America; who, in a few generations, out-numbered the savages of the wilderness, from their superior skill in the arts of life. The Hellene settlers flowed from all parts of Natolia into the isles and sea-ports of European Greece; especially from Miletus, (the Lud, perhaps,

haps, of the Jewish Scriptures,) which was a great source of the primæval colonies of the civilized.

The early Hellenes resembled the Picts of our northern seas. Rather cruisers than traders, they concurred in a siege of Troy as much to share the booty as to supply the troops; and they often carried into foreign slavery the daughters of inhabitants of the coast. They were wholly a sea-faring people, had no individual country, were collected from various and distant provinces, and, being hustled together, as crews of ships, acquired a sort of common language, a *lingua franca,* which generously naturalized the provincialisms of every considerable haven. To be Ionic, Doric, Attic, or Cretan, was still to be Hellene. Herodotus expressly says (i. 58.) that this language of the Hellenes was quite different from that of the Pelasgi; and no one can doubt that the Hellenes gave to Greece its reigning language.

Miletus was already a considerable town, and had been captured by the son of Gyges, (Herodotus, i. 15.) when the Scythians or Goths first began to press on the Cimbri: these two nations being both as yet in the nomade or roving state. The Goths appear first to have introduced sheep; and, as this animal is a native of Tibet, and adapted for a cold climate, the Goths, or Scythians, have probably a more easterly and more northerly origin than the Cimbri. The Argonautic expedition, nearly coinciding in point of time with the first appearance of the Scythians on the shores of the Euxine, was perhaps undertaken to import this new sort of cattle into Greece.

We are told that the Cimbri wore breeches, but they were made of hides, in *Gallia braceata* for instance: — the Goths drove about in their waggons the spindle and the loom. From the wool of their sheep they made coverings for their carts and tents, and clothes for themselves; and, superior in the arts of life to the Cimbri, they eventually overspread a larger portion of the European continent than the prior occupants. Yet the Cimbri had more of literature than the Goths; their Druids employed a sixteen-letter alphabet, and taught, in rimed triplets, the deeds of the excellent and the morals of the experienced.

With these general views, we are naturally disposed to believe that Pelasgic settlements were for the most part made by land, and consisted in the migration of tribes, or villages, of graziers; and that Hellene colonies were mostly transported by sea, and consisted of the superfluous sailors, artisans, and merchants' clerks of the commercial sea-ports. Agriculture, which is the result of towns, would soon connect the indigenous Pelasgic population with the Hellene settlers; and the rustic [illegible] would progressively be absorbed into the more [illegible] civilized language. Still we might expect [illegible] in the Greek language than are [illegible] The author of the Remains of [illegible] has indeed collected a great many [illegible] Greek and Welsh: but, when these [illegible] and most of them do, the filiation [illegible] Generally speaking, however, all of [illegible] Sanscrit is Welsh.

[illegible] we find Hippothous leading some Pelasgian lancers from Larissa: but, to judge by his name, he was a Greek officer, who had raised recruits among the natives. Still, the passage proves the inhabitants of Thessaly to have been Pelasgi; Herodotus (i. 146.) calls the Arcadians Pelasgi: and Strabo (xii. 572.) states the Pelasgi to have been in a nomade or wandering state at the period of the siege of Troy. In all these notices, we find the autochthonous or inland-people to be Pelasgi:—but M. Raoul-Rochette is determined to find them at sea also; and, in the first chapter of his second book, he classes the rape of Io by the Phœnicians Herodotus i. 1.) as an anecdote of Pelasgic colonization. This is confounding two races of people wholly dissimilar. It is a confusion, however, from which neither Dr. Herbert Marsh nor his less acute episcopal antagonist is wholly free. (See our remarks on Dr. Jamieson's *Hermes Scythicus*, in our Number for February last.)

The Phœnicians, Heredotus tells us, (i. 1.) came originally from the Red Sea; and thither, no doubt, from Guzurat; whence they brought with them a language closely resembling the Sanscrit, and a polytheism analogous to that of Hindostan. Accordingly, their Sanchoniathon, in his Cosmogony, says that the Phœnicians were children of midnight and the wind: [illegible] that they came from the northern coast of a distant [illegible] No sooner were they settled in the sea-ports of the Mediterranean, than a marked increase of civilization and prosperity followed; and Sidon, Tyre, Tarsus, and Miletus, attest the success of their establishments. Commerce is necessarily cosmopolite: it makes denizens of the natives of every land: [illegible] the alien and employs the stranger in preference. Interpreters are requisite in every counting-house, in every ship, in [illegible] and these agents of intercourse soon adopt, in their [illegible], the nomenclature both of the buyer [illegible]mmercial population easily changes [illegible]; and a people who, while stationed [illegible] are called Phœnicians, or *Palm* *landers* by the Greeks, might become modified into Hellenes when they had colonized Cyprus and Crete, and stretched their establishments to Sinope. The Hellenes had no ostensible *patria:* the islanders of the Archipelago had originally assumed the appellation; and it was a name as yet unknown in Homer's time, being first mentioned or adopted by Thucydides. We incline to consider the Hellenes as the *ver sacrum* of the Phœnicians; as the young men devoted to emigration who had been adopted into their commercial establishments; as the apprentices of their handicraft; as the pupils of their civilization; as the heirs of their traditional arts of life and trade and discipline. In a language not strange at Tyre, the isles of the Archipelago were called the isles of Elisha; (Ezekiel, xxvii. 7.) and in this denomination apparently lurks the root of the word Hellene. We add that the entire Hellene population took its political tone from the Phœnicians as from a mother-country. The siege of Tyre by Nebuchadnezzar, — or, as the Greeks call him, by Cambyses,—drove the Phœnicians into hostility against the Persian empire; and, from this very period, the entire Hellene population was engaged in a silently progressive conspiracy to shake off all allegiance to the Persians, which was successfully accomplished under the ensuing Emperor Darius, and especially by the battle of Marathon. A good dissertation by *Meyerhoff* was printed at Göttingen in 1794, on the traces of Phœnician settlement in early Greece.

In the first chapter of his third book, the present author very properly classes as a Pelasgic colony the settlement in Epirus of some tribes who receded from Deucalion in Thessaly. This is a colonization by land, according with the habits of the nation: but we are not disposed to class as Pelasgic the settlement of the Teleboans in their island, the balance of testimony rather supporting their arrival from Argos. In like manner the Enotrians, who go to Italy, start from the Peloponnesus, where no Pelasgic tribes were: though it is true that they obtain among the Epirotes some Pelasgic recruits. Of the colonies enumerated in this book as Pelasgic, we apprehend that not above one in ten is intitled to the appellation.

Book iv. Pelops is here, without any evidence, metamorphosed into a Pelasgic prince: though his name is Greek, which is *primâ-facie* evidence against a Pelasgic origin. Perhaps the denomination Lelegi, a tribe continually mentioned in connection with the Pelasgi, conceals the adjective *Gaelic.*

In the fifth book, and in the second and third chapters, the author narrates the ill-fated settlement, or colonization, of the Pelasgi, which they made in Attica. For constructing a part of the Acropolis, the Athenians agreed to concede a right of commonage about Mount Hymettus to the Pelasgic labourers collectively: but, after a time, the Athenians wished to resume the grant, and unjustly ejected the Pelasgic graziers. Irritated by a treatment which reduced the colony to starvation, the Pelasgi are said by Herodotus (vi. 138.) to have murdered those Athenian women whom they had married, and their children. Miltiades interfered, consulted the oracle, and removed these unfortunate people to Lemnos. Other settlements of the same nation in Attica are also recorded.

One district inhabited by the Pelasgi was called Phthiotis; which seems to shew that they worshipped the Ægptian god Phtha: they were, then, monotheists, as from all the native testimony our Welshmen also appear to have been.

Volume II. is allotted to the history of Hellene colonization, and is subdivided into three books, of which the first treats of settlements prior to the reign of Minos; the second, of settlements intervening between the reign of Minos and the siege of Troy; and the third, of settlements subsequent to the taking of Troy, and prior to the return of the Heraclidæ. Of all these colonies, very little is known; and that little rests on poetic testimony, or is derived from mythic legends of the priests, but is not recoraed in the trust-worthy forms of history. Some entertaining speculations are here mingled with these traditional notices. In the twentieth chapter, (p. 113.) it is maintained that the anecdote of Perseus and Andromeda relates an event which happened at Joppa; and that the Æthiopian sovereign, said to have reigned there, can have been no other than one of the Israelite judges, or kings, who were known to have migrated from Ægypt, or Æthiopia. This Perseus is said (p. 125.) to have founded Tarsus.

The second books opens with the reign of Minos. Not enough has yet been done to disentangle that which is fabulous from that which is ascertainable, concerning this prince. Since he built a labyrinth, or subterraneous temple, for the Minotaur, he was clearly of Ægyptian origin, and a worshipper of Apis. This worship was a civic homage to the Pharaohs, a declaration of allegiance not inconsistent with monotheism; it was attempted by the Israelites in the wilderness; and it was established among them successfully by Jeroboam at Dan and Bethel. Lycurgus is stated to have borrowed the leading features of his legislation from Minos. Now this legislation of the Spartans was so Judaic in its character, (see 1 Maccabees, c. xii.) that the Jews and Spartans claimed a common origin. It may be presumed, therefore, that Minos, if not an orthodox Jew, was at least of that sect of Jews which, like the subjects of Jeroboam, worshipped Apis. In this case, he will have derived from the book of Leviticus the principal features of his legislation; and the reputation of his wisdom must be referred to the reflected light of the Mosaic records. Herodotus, and the early Greek writers, give the name of Ægyptians not only to the Coptic dwellers beside the Nile, but also to the shepherd-kings, and to the Israelitish occupants of the isthmus of Suez. Hence much of the political wisdom, which the Greeks profess to have gained from the Ægyptians, may in fact have resulted from the study of our sacred books.

The foundation of the Natolian Miletus is referred at p. 137. to a Cretan colony: but we should rather suspect the Miletus in Crete to have been founded by a migration from Natolia: the general flow of populousness having been from the east westward. Babylon and Nineveh were great cities, while Greece was a wilderness; and Miletus seems to have owed its early greatness to the circumstance that it was the sea-port of Nineveh. Tarsus afterward divided this advantage.

The foundation of Sinope by the Milesians, under the conduct of Autolycus, is related at p. 206. in the tenth chapter of the second book. This Autolycus, according to the present author's testimonies, was one of the Argonauts; and the people of Sinope, about the time of Alexander, erected to his memory a colossal statue, which was, as Strabo relates, the work of Sthenis. As the first Ptolemy sent to Sinope for a colossal statue of Serapis about that very time, it may be presumed that the same artist made the famous Ægyptian Serapis. The Milesians were distinguished in Ægypt by their zeal for the worship of Isis. Of the nature of her rites, little is known: but that the Ægyptians imported idols from Sinope, and praised the zeal of fellow-sectaries from Miletus, is a proof that some form of religious ritual, distinct from the Greek paganism, was widely extended in the earlier times over European Greece; and it seems probable that the Macedonian and Spartan nations especially included a large proportion of peoplewho held such a creed.

Book iii. Of Settlements occasioned by the Siege of Troy. During the absence of the Greek princes from their homes, many usurpers, like Ægisthus, attained a vice-regal rank, which they refused to surrender to the unexpected original sovereigns. Several of the latter were in consequence obliged to seek new residences, and founded additional cities with their plunder and their soldiery; and of these the most celebrated, because in its consequences the most eventful, was the settlement of Diomede in Italy, which occupies the first chapter.

ter. Philoctetes also, according to the fourth chapter, accompanied a colony into that country; and so did Idomeneus. The Trojan emigration under Æneas occupies the seventh chapter. All this, however, resembles poetic tradition more than history.

Volume III. is again divided into three books, of which the first, called the fourth in the series, treats of colonizations intervening between the return of the Heraclidæ and the establishment of the Olympiads; the fifth relates to colonizations between the commencement of a regular chronology and the reign of Cyrus; and the sixth respects colonizations between the death of Cyrus and the battle of Chæronæa. Chapter ii. of the second book once more discusses the foundation of Sinope, and maintains that, after its destruction by the Cimmerians, it was again colonized from Miletus. Chapters ten, sixteen, and nineteen, pursue the interesting history of Milesian colonies; proving that city to have contributed more than any other place to the civilization and population of the shores of the Archipelago. With a somewhat perverse fickleness, the author begins in this volume to class his colonies geographically; while in the two former volumes, which relate to events of uncertain date, he had attempted to class them chronologically: the inverse would have been the more lucid order.—In the sixth book, chapter ii. continues the chronicle of Milesian colonization, and is peculiarly interesting. A valuable memoir might be drawn up concerning the literary and civil history of Miletus, which would throw much light on the dawn of Greek culture.

Of the fourth volume, the greater part is occupied by the seventh book, which relates exclusively the history of the Greek colonies formed by Alexander. This is, in our judgment, the best part of the work, and we shall accordingly make an extract from it.

'*Foundation of Alexandria in Ægypt; Re-establishment of Tyre and Gaza; Colonies planted in Syria.*

' Olympiad cxii.—332 before Christ.

' I shall not dwell on the foundation of Alexandria; the origin of this celebrated city being so well known, that I could only repeat what a crowd of antient authors and modern critics have written on the subject. M. *de Sainte-Croix*, whose prejudices I combat unwillingly, acknowleges in this instance the reality of those good intentions which I attribute habitually to the founder of so many colonies. He does justice on this occasion to the elevated and luminous views which directed the conqueror of Darius to the choice of this establishment:—he describes the natural advantages of the situation, and the labours by which the foresight of the hero endeavoured to ameliorate it;—and he sees in the construction of this city an enterprize justified by sound policy and humanity, far preferable to those vain pyramidal edifices of a colossal ænigmatic architecture, which, though prodigies of toil, are but the more lasting monuments of the tyranny of the princes who built them. In the work of this skilful critic, whose expressions I have taken a pleasure in quoting, and in those of the authors to whom he has referred, my readers may find some details which would here seem but a fastidious repetition; and which, as they present no difficulties to criticism, I may be allowed to pass over, in favour of other establishments formed by Alexander in contiguous regions, and at no very distant epoch.

'The revolt of the Samaritans compelled Alexander to return into Syria, in order to punish the rebels, and to prevent the consequences of a similar defection elsewhere: but the historians of this prince, in tracing his journey, have overlooked its motive. Arrian and Diodorus are contented with pointing out his return, the one into Phœnicia, the other into Syria. Quintus Curtius alone speaks of the recent revolt in Samaria, and of the vengeance which Alexander consequently took; and the principal circumstances of his relation are confirmed by Eusebius. After the taking of Tyre, and the submission of Gaza, Alexander conquered Judæa; and, before he proceeded to any farther expedition, he appointed Andromachus, one of his officers, to command over the province, and to insure the doubtful allegiance of his new subjects. On his departure, however, they resumed their native spirit of independence: the inhabitants of Samaria hoisted the standard of rebellion; and the blood of Andromachus was spilled by the hands of the insurgents. They did not wait long to repent of this act of vengeance, which drew on them bloody reprisals. On the first rumour of this insurrection, Alexander quitted Ægypt, at the head of a victorious army, of which the ranks had recently been replenished by recruits from Greece; surprized the city of Samaria; banished the most guilty inhabitants; and placed in their confiscated houses a colony of faithful Macedonians. Such is the information of Eusebius. Quintus Curtius relates in a few words this expedition, but says nothing of the Macedonian colony planted there; while Syncellus, who is often the mere copyist of Eusebius, is here fuller, and makes mention of this establishment. However, the silence of the historians of Alexander may be explained by the reasons given above; and the tradition preserved by the chronologers is conformable with probability, and with the plan followed throughout this campaign by the Macedonian hero. The foundation of Alexandria had made this prince aware of the necessity of in some degree re-establishing Tyre, under his own controul; lest the Phœnician merchants should again undertake to rebuild that antient metropolis, with formidable strength and in a spirit of defiance. These were prudent views, worthy of the monarch who entertained them; and he had already begun the execution of them, when, after the taking of Gaza, which soon succeeded the reduction of Tyre, he peopled the first of these cities with such inhabitants of the neighbouring districts as bore him a true and faithful allegiance. He proposed, as Arrian tells us, to make it a garrison-town for the purpose of overawing his enemies. Strabo, it is true, says that Gaza was destroyed and remained deserted: but Strabo, who had not the account of Josephus, probably confounds the momentary disaster which Gaza experienced from Alexander the Great, with its total destruction by Alexander Zebina, in the year 96 before Christ. Be this as it may, Alexander took care to re-people Tyre with men wholly devoted to his interests; and these faithful colonists, mostly Jews, recovered, under the protection of the master to whom they owed their fortune and establishment, a part of the vast trade which Tyre had formerly enjoyed. M. *de Sainte-Croix*, who always refuses to believe in the good intentions of Alexander, says that he no where finds this selection of the new inhabitants of Tyre: but Justin allows it in no obscure terms: "*ingenuis et innoxiis insulæ attributis ut genus urbis ex integro conderetur.*" Can any thing be plainer than that the colony formed by Alexander was a selection from the antient population of Tyre, which excluded obnoxious persons? The colonists were no doubt in part derived from other Phœnician cities, which had been the case at Gaza; and probably some Macedonian Greeks were intrusted with the office of superintendance, since many of them were accustomed to trade on these shores.

'Perhaps to this same epoch we ought to refer the foundation of some towns in the neighbourhood of Tyre, the creation of which is attributed to Alexander; such as Gerasa, Dium, and Pella, whose names indicate a Greek or Macedonian origin. The first of these towns, which all belong to the Decapolis of Cœlo-Syria, was peopled, according to Jamblichus, by invalid Macedonian soldiers, whom their master established in this newly conquered district. This tradition is easily reconciled with what we have related concerning the other establishments formed by Alexander in the same country. In fact, nothing is more probable than that this prince should thus rid himself of some veterans, who were no longer able to follow him in those hazardous expeditions which he was projecting. Besides, the relation of Jamblichus is corroborated by a tradition preserved to us in the Great Etymologicon: where, under the head *Gerasa*, it is said that Alexander, in seizing this place, had massacred the young people, and left only old men there, whom he permitted to rebuild and re-people it: but no author mentions this systematic massacre; nor does such a deed of cruelty accord with the opinion which we are intitled to form of the character of Alexander. The compiler of the Great Etymologicon should have given his authority, specified his evidence, and acquainted us whether the new city was continued on the site of the old. It is probable, however, that the severities incurred by the inhabitants of Tyre, Gaza, and Samaria, may have occasioned some bitterness in the unknown historian consulted by this compiler, who has neglected to specify his original witness. The only induction, that we are intitled to draw from a recital evidently altered by the ignorance of the copyist, is that Alexander founded at Gerasa a colony, resembling those which he had formed at Tyre, Gaza, and Samaria; and this induction coincides with the tradition preserved by Jamblichus.

'The town of Dium, situated in the neighbourhood of the foregoing, recalls the name of a city in Macedonia, which, even without other authority, might sanction the ascription of it to Alexander: but Stephen of Byzantium expressly says that Dium in Syria was founded by Alexander; and Eusebius confirms or rather repeats his testimony. This tradition accords with the preceding, which receive and give a mutual confirmation. It was also during the stay of Alexander in Syria, that Pella acquired its birth and name; there existed, indeed, a town under the denomination of Butis, which was newly named in honour of the country of Alexander by the Macedonian soldiers established there. Eustathius, who informs us of this interesting fact, commits, however, the error of confounding Pella with Apamea: which two cities, as medals prove, both existed at once. *Eckhel* has observed, on the coins of the Syrian Pella, the same emblem as on those of the Macedonian Pella; which identity would, in the absence of other testimony, such as that of Eustathius, suffice to prove its Macedonian origin. Stephen of Byzantium confirms the fact: but this author confounds Dium with Pella, which other geographers distinguish. Salmasius, by the collation of the Palatine manuscript, removed from the author to his transcriber the blame of this error.

'I have not deemed it proper to rank, among the colonies founded by Alexander at this period, a second Alexandria in Ægypt, which the author of the Paschal Chronicle places in the Ægyptian Pentapolis, near Memphis, to which it served as a port. This city being mentioned by no geographer is to me unknown; and the name of Tettus, which it is said to have borne before Alexander's time, cannot be any where discovered by the critics. As my researches do not serve to determine its position and origin, I suspect the chronicler to have been mistaken, or his text miscopied, and must await farther elucidation.

'I shall not be so scrupulous with regard to a tradition preserved by Eusebius, which attributes to Alexander the foundation of the city of Parætonium in Libya. The silence of all the historians of this prince would not suffice to destroy the fact, did not its internal improbability concur to render suspicious the long subsequent testimony of the disorderly chronology of Eusebius. After an expedition against the Hyrcanians, this chronologist brings back Alexander into the oasis of Ammon, and makes him found there Parætonium: but nothing can be farther from probability than such a march, and such a return into Africa. I add that Syncellus, who foists into his own compilation most of the dates and events related by Eusebius, has omitted this foundation; which may authorize a suspicion that the text of Eusebius, here known to us only by the translation of Saint Jerom, has suffered some interpolation. Yet we must suspect that this tradition, erroneous as it may be, had been adopted by some writers of the middle age, either Greek or Arabian; since the false Callisthenes, in his odd romance of the life of this prince, attributes to him the origin of Paraetonium, and adduces on the occasion an etymology as absurd as the other circumstances of his recital. But I will not abuse the time and patience of my readers by dwelling longer on the refutation of fables unworthy to be examined: nor shall I seek to investigate the tradition preserved by Eustathius, which attributes to Alexander the restoration of Cyrene. The march of this conqueror never extended into the country of Cyrene; and all his annalists are silent about a fact which, if true, would have escaped neither their cognizance nor their record.'

On the whole, this work appears to us rather to contain a convenient collection of references relative to Greek colonization, than a neat and luminous history of the enterprizes to which they apply. That philosophic spirit of research and inference, which knows how to disentangle the historic facts that are latent in mythic record, is not eminently exerted: nor are the leading features of the several enterprizes very distinctly pourtrayed. There are colonies of the Pelasgic graziers, who shift their residences for purposes of pasturage: — there are colonies of the Hellene pirates, who remove from danger at home, or in the plundered districts, to some new and naked shore; to which class may be referred the wanderings of the Trojan heroes: — there are, also, commercial colonies and plantations, founded in the pacific spirit of honest profit by industry, such as those which issued from Miletus; — there are colonies of asylum, as when a conquered party, or a persecuted sect, is compelled to emigrate; — and finally there are colonies of restoration; as when, after the siege and capture of a town, the vacated dwellings are distributed by the conqueror among his supporters and allies. Each enterprize should be characteristically classed. A much less prolix work would suffice to comprize the interesting matter of these four volumes; which ought rather to be re-constructed than merely translated, by any classical scholar who is disposed to import the substance of them into our home-literature.

Art. VI. *De la Rareté*, &c.; *i. e.* On the Rarity and the Price of Roman Medals; or a Collection containing the rare and unpublished Devices of the Medals of Gold, Silver, and Bronze, that were struck during the Periods of the Roman Commonwealth and under the Emperors. By T. E. Mionnet, Knight of the Legion of Honour; and first Assistant in the Cabinet of Antiques in the King's Library. 8vo. pp. 567. Paris. 1815. London, De Boffe. Price 1l. 11s. 6d.

Of all the branches of ornamental literature which formerly overhung the cabinets of sedentary research, and have lately been drawn down to amuse the gazing idleness of opulence, or to prompt the conversational remarks of a classical and accomplished generation, *Numismatics* offers perhaps the most various, the most elegant, and the most instructive series of imagery. The sovereigns exalted by nations, the deeds achieved by valour, the monuments erected by art, and the divinities imagined by piety, have found on medals a condensed, an enduring, and a widely circulating record. If it be desired to associate in the memory with the mention of rulers or heroes their precise likeness and real physiognomy, they must be sought in the representations derived from the collections of the medalist. If it be wished to facilitate the recollection of an event, by connecting it with some emblematic illustration or some concisely descriptive epigrammatic sentence, on the works of the medalist this is often most happily accomplished. Statues and temples, which war and time have broken and demolished, yet remain standing on the medal, and have induced distant artists to attempt an imitative restoration. The painter, who would personify the virtues in the beautiful and heroic forms of Greek and Roman art, must collect their usual conventional attributes and emblems from medallic precedents. In fine, the archæology of human caprice, the successive variations of fashion, the general progress of taste, the minutest precisions of chronology, and the geographical spread of civilization, are all to be best inferred from medals.

> Ambition sigh'd: she found it vain to trust
> The faithless column, and the crumbling bust;
> Huge moles, whose shadow stretch'd from shore to shore,
> Their ruins perish'd, and their place no more!
> Convinc'd, she now contracts her vast design,
> And all her triumphs shrink into a coin.
> A narrow orb each crowded conquest keeps,
> Beneath her Palm here sad Judea weeps;
> Now scantier limits the proud arch confine,
> And scarce are seen the prostrate Nile, or Rhine;
> A small Euphrates thro' the piece is roll'd,
> And circling Ocean heaves his waves of gold.

The earliest writer on numismatics was *Enea Vico*, who published in 1548 the first edition of his Discourses on the Medals of the Antients, to which *Franco* attached a supplement in 1601: but the *Thesaurus Morellianus*, printed at Amsterdam in 1734, is the oldest important work on Roman numismatics. The author of the volume before us, however, is more indebted to the *Numismata Præstantiora* of *Vaillant* and the supplement of Father *Khell*, to the *Numismata Imperatorum*

torum of *Banduri* and the supplement of *Tanini*; and principally to *Eckhel's Doctrina Numorum Veterum*, which is justly considered as the best extant work in this department of literature. It is somewhat to be regretted that the lucid and learned introductory Essay of Mr. Pinkerton does not make sufficient use of the erudition of *Eckhel*.

Following the system of classification adopted by that distinguished German, M. Mionnet proposes to publish a general description of all extant Roman medals; and he sends forth this preliminary dissertation, partly to make known some inedited pieces preserved in the collection of the king of France, and partly to ascertain by discussion the chasms which may be filled up and the modern interpolations in his projected series. Great pains have been taken to affix a value to the different coins, proportioned to their rarity; and this addition renders the book not only a critical catalogue important to the student, but a manual precious to silversmiths, dealers, and collectors.

The Roman medals are here divided into three classes, of which the first contains the *Ases*; the second, the Family Medals; and the third, the Imperial Medals. The arrangement is in general chronological, but the order of time is not so strictly followed as *Eckhel* would have recommended. The author observes, p. vi., that the original *As* weighed twelve Roman ounces, and continued of that standard until the first Punic war; after which, reductions became so frequent, that by the time of Pompey it had sunken to the forty-eighth part of its primitive weight. We much suspect that some of the huge lumps of brass, exhibited in cabinets as Etruscan and Roman coins of the early ages, were rather weights than monies, and served as two-pound tokens, not in tale but scale. One of the earliest coins here noticed as Roman is called a *Quadrussis*; it has an oblong shape, measuring six inches by three, and is stamped with the figure of an ox walking. This specimen we suspect to be Phœnician, and to have been brought by commerce into Italy, not manufactured there. Varro indeed says, "*Æs antiquissimum pecore est notatum*:" but the tradition stands on very feeble evidence which imputes the oldest money known in Italy to Italian mints or founderies. We incline to consider as the oldest Italian money the *Decursis*, with a Janus on one side and the prow on the other; it is a copper coin, cast, not struck.

Immediately after the Roman *Ases*, M. Mionnet gives the medals of the consular families. This curious series deserves, he thinks, more attentive consultation than it has hitherto attracted; since the variety of types and symbols, the numerous figures of divinities, the portraits of illustrious personages, and the names of the primæval families of Rome, which are thus transmitted to us, throw light on the study of mythology, of history, of manners, of the civil and military usages of the Romans, and on the progress of the art of coinage. There are also colonial and municipal coins, stamped with the names of those duumvirs and decurions, or sheriffs and mayors, who caused them to be struck; which may properly be arranged in this division, and which elucidate the early geography and statistical progress of the subordinate towns and provinces of Italy.

A Gracchus is in this subdivision denounced as of modern forgery, which has on the reverse a figure holding a spear, and standing on a pedestal inscribed *Agraria;* a comet being in the back-ground, and a shield and coat of mail in the exergue. This medal, which aspires to confer on levelling principles the honours of a classical immortality, was probably forged during the ascendancy of *Rienzi* at Rome. The head is naked.— An unpublished medal struck during the triumvirate of Anthony, Augustus, and Lepidus, decorates the concluding vignette of this section, which offers some new and much curious matter. It forms an agreeable and instructive commentary on the consular *fasti,* which precede the imperial institution, pursuing on medals the record of the changes effected during the commonwealth.

The two primary subdivisions of M. MIONNET may be considered as mere preliminaries, and are both dispatched in the first 62 pages: the remaining 500 pages being consecrated to the Roman and Byzantine emperors. To give an idea of the manner in which this dry but sound work is drawn up, we reprint the medallic history of the short reign of Nerva. *

	‘ NERVA.	‘ *Prix.*
R^2.	En or, module ordinaire, de - - -	48 à 200 fr.
R^6.	En or, restituée par Trajan, de - - -	100 à 200 fr.
R^5.	En argent, médaillons, de - - - -	48 à 60 fr.
C.	En argent, module ordinaire, de - - -	1 à 10 fr.
C.	En Grand Bronze, de - - - -	3 à 60 fr.
C.	En Moyen Bronze, avec le revers Fisci Judaïci, etc.	12 fr.
C.	En Petit Bronze, sans sa tête, de - -	1 à 2 fr.

‘ *Médaillons d'argent ; revers rares.*

Com. Asi. *Femme dans un temple ; au péristyle,* Rom. et Aug. - - - - - - - -	48 fr.
Ead. epig. *Deux figures dans le temple* - - -	60 fr.
Cos. ii. *vel* iii. *vel* IV. *Modius plein d' épis* - -	48 fr.
Cos. iii. *Simulacre de la Diane de Perga dans un temple ; sur le fronton,* Diana Perg. - - - - -	60 fr.

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* R^1., R^2., &c. designate the first and following degrees of Rarity. C. means common.

'*Module ordinaire d'or et d'argent ; revers rares.*

	Arg.	Or.
Cos. ii. design. iii. p. p. *Diane chasseresse debout, avec un chien*	6 fr.	
Cos. iii. pater patriae. *Vases de sacrifice*		60 fr.
Imp. caes. Trajan. aug. ger. dac. p. p. rest. *Char à deux éléphans*		200 fr.
Ead. epig. *Deux mains jointes*		100 fr.
Imp. ii. cos. iii. design. iv. p. p. *Femme debout*	6 fr.	50 fr.
Imp. ii. cos. iv. p. p. *Victoire debout* (Quin.)	6 fr.	
Ead. epig. *Femme debout*	3 fr.	48 fr.
Justitia august. *Femme assise*	2 fr.	50 fr.
Moneta august. s. c. *La Monnoie debout*	6 fr.	
Pax Augusti. *L'Empereur et un soldat se donnant la main*	10 fr.	
Salus publica. *Femme assise*		48 fr.

'*Suite des revers rares du Module ordinaire ; or et argent.*

	Arg.	Or.
S. p. q. r. optimo principi. *Femme debout*	3 fr.	
Victoria aug. *Victoire assise*		48 fr.
Victoria august. *Victoire debout ou assise* (Quinaires)	9 fr.	

'*Grand bronze ; revers rares.*

Adlocut. aug. *L'Empereur haranguant des soldats*	60 fr.
Annona august. *Cérès assise, et l'Abondance debout*	6 fr.
Concordia exercituum. *Deux mains jointes, tenant une enseigne militaire sur une proue*	3 fr.
Congiar. pr. *L'Empereur assis, et plusieurs figures*	10 fr.
Fisci Judaici calumnia sublata. *Palmier*	8 fr.
Plebei urbanae frumento constituto. *Modius*	12 fr.
Providentia senatus. *L'Empereur et un Sénateur debout*	20 fr.
Roma renascens. *Rome assise*	10 fr.
Vehiculatione Italiae remissa. *Deux mules paissant*	10 fr.

'*Petit bronze ; revers rares*

Imp. Nerva caes. aug. *Tête de Vénus.* ℞. S. c. *Globe et gouvernail*	2 fr.'

Here, all the materials being already edited, no vignette is attached: but, whenever a piece occurs which has escaped the notice of former graphic describers, it is now introduced. The supplements are not numerous, and chiefly of an elder date. Certainly, the great expence and inconvenience of being obliged to seek and possess the old standard works, in order to profit by these supplementary additions, renders it highly desirable that some intelligent editor should undertake to re-engrave the old, and to insert in its proper place the succedaneous * matter; so as to place in one splendid work the entire series of Greek coins, and in another that of Roman coins; which last series, as being of more general interest, and less exposed to defective execution, forms perhaps the better enterprize for a beginning. While *Spanheim* resided in this country, Addison cultivated his society, and is supposed to have derived from his conversation the superficial acquaintance with medals that is displayed in the three Dialogues. Some project of editing the *Numismata Imperatoria* was in agitation between them; and we believe that a manuscript preparatory to this attempt still exists in the British Museum, No. 3879. The knowlege accumulated at that period would now avail but little; yet something of method and something of taste may be acquired by consulting the labours of accomplished predecessors.

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* We are writing on coins: — may we not coin a word?

The earliest christian emblem, namely the *labarum*, does not occur until on the very last medal of Constantine. Medals of the Gothic kings in Italy, as of Theodoric, are here given: these medals, again, have christian emblems; and we suspect that they should rather be classed at the commencement of modern than at the conclusion of antient dynasties. A medal of Theodoric, with a view of his Gothic palace near Verona, is omitted in this list: it is a remarkable medal for preserving the oldest known monument of Gothic architecture.

M. MIONNET has already deserved well of the antiquary by his treatise on Greek medals; and the present work is less defective. He had now fewer difficulties to conquer, but his progress towards a complete execution of his task is obvious to comparison, and intitled to commendation.

ART. VII. *Aperçû des États Unis*, &c.; *i.e.* A View of the United States in the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century, from 1800 to 1810; with Statistical Tables. By the Chevalier FELIX DE BEAUJOUR, formerly Member of the Tribunate. 8vo. pp. 274. With a Map and Seventeen Tables. Paris. 1815. Imported by De Boffe. Price 10s. 6d. sewed.

THE name of FELIX DE BEAUJOUR became known to the public by a work on the commerce of Greece, which appeared in France about the year 1799, and was speedily translated into English. It was one of the first books that treated of the mercantile interests of a country which had been described in general under a very different point of view; and the author's situation of French consul at Salonica enabled him to make it a vehicle of much useful information. Mercantile men accordingly found it a very acceptable present, although not a little disfigured by the effusions and redundancies common in the productions of those of our Gallic neighbours who are in the habit of giving greater scope to imagination than to reflection. From the modest station of mercantile consul in the Levant, M. DE B. came to Paris, and obtained a seat in the Tribunate: but this he soon exchanged for an appointment in the United States, where he passed a sufficient number of years to enable him to acquire a considerable knowlege of the country. His residence, however, had not the effect of making him a warm admirer of our Trans-atlantic brethren; of whom he writes in a style that may be said to hold a medium between the impatient censure of M. *Turreau*, and the more matured animadversions of *Talleyrand*.

M. DE B. divides his book into five chapters, treating, i. Of the Climate and physical Aspect of the United States; ii. Of their political Situation; iii. and iv. Of their foreign Commerce, particularly with France and England; and v. Of their foreign Policy in general. With the exception of the first chapter, the volume is lively and entertaining; trespassing sometimes on the score of exaggeration, but including a variety of particulars deserving of notice, both from the recency of the observation and the respectability of the writer. Without confining ourselves exactly to his arrangement, we shall lay before our readers the substance of the most entertaining and instructive passages.

Climate and Agriculture.—Every thing in the United States bears the marks of a lately-settled country, in which the hand of man has still to perfect the work of nature.

> ' You look in vain,' says the author, ' for those variegated and fertile plains, for that rich and brilliant prospect, which Europe every where presents to the eye of the traveller: no country on earth has a more desert or melancholy appearance. A forest of vast extent, intersected only by glades in which are a few villages, corn-fields, or pools: currents of water over-running the forest in different directions, but all having their source in the double chain of the Alleghany mountains: to the west of these mountains, a number of bogs, all terminating in the great morass of the Mississippi; to the east, a low and level coast over-spred with marshes, and on this coast six large and many smaller towns, built of brick or of painted wood: on every side a quantity of trees or brushwood, concealing the surrounding ground from the eye of the spectator: and throughout the whole a barren soil, an inclement sky, a dull and unharmonious scenery: — such is the general aspect of the country. The spectacle, however, is not without its charms; and, on first landing in America, a traveller is struck with the immensity of the forests, the extent of the inland-waters, their diversified forms, and the life and colouring which they give to the landscape.

'The climate varies according to the latitude: but it is in general colder by several degrees than in the old hemisphere under corresponding parallels, because the country is more recently peopled and still covered with wood and water. It is also more unsteady, and the thermometer often fluctuates from 10 to 12 degrees of Réaumur in the course of the day. It is worthy of remark that, on the other side of the Alleghanys, it is less variable and less cold than on the side of the Atlantic, although the former country is much more woody than the latter. This unsteadiness of climate on the side of the Atlantic arises from several causes: the heat, on the one hand, brought from the tropics through the Gulf of Mexico; and on the other the cold winds which blow, without any temperating medium, from the lakes, and which are rendered still colder in their passage across the Alleghany mountains: but it is to be attributed chiefly to the changeableness of the winds, which alter several times in a day, and blow not from adjoining points in the compass, but from quarters of the horizon diametrically opposite. The prevailing winds are the north-west, the south-west, and the north-east. The north-east blows in all seasons, the south-west blows most commonly in summer, and the north-west in winter: but the last may be considered, on account of its duration and intensity, as the prevailing wind in the United States. All winds blowing from N. by W. are dry; while those that blow N. by E. are rainy. The north-west is the driest of all, because it blows from off land, traversing the whole plains of America, as well as immense chains of mountains; and the north-east is the most rainy, because it comes loaded with sea-vapours. This last wind is very prevalent, and the fall of rain is greater in the United States than in Europe: but, if the showers are more frequent, they also evaporate sooner, because the air is more agitated on the western continent. Thunder, hail, and snow are very common there. In the northern states, the ground is covered with snow during three months in the year, and the inhabitants are accustomed to travel in sledges, as in Sweden, or Russia. We can scarcely speak of more than two distinct seasons in the United States, and they succeed each other without any apparent transition: throughout the north, the winters are long, and severe; and the summers are short, but scorching.'

The agriculture of the northern states is formed on the English model; the farms are small, and occupy only a few ploughs each: but, on travelling southwards, and crossing the Potomac, we perceive a mode of culture similar to that of the West Indies: — estates of considerable extent, and the work performed by negroes. Maryland, placed between the two great divisions of the United States, exhibits, in point of agriculture, a medium between the north and the south: but in no part of the country is attention paid to any alternation of the course of husbandry, to irrigation, or to the application of manure. The favourite plan is to work on one uncleared district after another; and yet the quantity in a state of cultivation

tivation good or bad, in tillage or in pasture, is not greater throughout the whole of this almost boundless country than the superficial extent of England.

Population. — The population of the United States was computed at eight millions in the year 1810; of which between 6 and 7,000,000 are whites, 1,500,000 negroes, and between 2 and 300,000 are Indian aborigines, removed progressively from district to district, and now scattered on the frontiers of the north and west. The annual deaths in the United States are reckoned at one in forty; the births at one in twenty; the marriages at one in thirty. The latter ratio is far greater than in Europe, and arises from the ease of finding subsistence for a family. The deaths, on the other hand, are also more frequent than in most parts of Europe, but appear few when contrasted as above with the extraordinary proportion of births. M. DE BEAUJOUR coincides with his countryman, *Turreau,* (see our last *Appendix,*) in computing the average of life in the United States at eight or nine years less than in Europe. Both sexes arrive early at maturity, and, in like manner, begin earlier to fall off. Seventy is said to be not more common an age in that country than eighty in Europe. The population of the principal cities is

Philadelphia about	120,000	Charlestown about	30,000
New York -	90,000	New Orleans -	20,000
Baltimore -	40,000	Norfolk -	10,000
Boston -	36,000	Washington -	6,000

The most populous of the other towns has not above 10,000 inhabitants.

> ' The towns of the United States are not so handsome and elegant as those of Europe: but they are better aired, more spacious, and almost all intersected by avenues and gardens, which give them both the look and the advantages of the country. In several of them, the houses do not join each other, but are grouped together as in some of our villages. Philadelphia is not, according to the representation of some sanguine travellers, the most beautiful city in the world, but it is the most remarkable for the regularity of its streets and the cleanliness of its houses. It is situated between the Delaware and the Schuylkill, about six miles above their conflux, and at the distance of 120 miles from the ocean. The town forms a large parallelogram, occupying the space between the two rivers, and cut like a chess-board at right angles. A sameness of appearance prevails about every street and every house, and nothing can exceed the dullness of this uniformity, except it be the habitual gloom of the inhabitants, who are mostly Quakers. The aspect of New York is much gayer, and resembles that of an European city. Baltimore and Boston have all the appearance of English towns. Charlestown, New Orleans, and Norfolk, are of quite another cast, and not unlike the towns in the

West Indies. Boston, New York, and Baltimore, present a very agreeable prospect when viewed from a distance, being built on eminences, and appearing to the eye to rise out of the bosom of the surrounding water: but nothing is more devoid of beauty than the environs of Philadelphia, Norfolk, Charlestown, and New Orleans, built as they are on a low and level plain, in the midst of pools and marshes. These towns are constructed of brick, or of wood painted; and, with the exception of some public buildings, nothing is more tasteless than their architecture: it is a mixture of the style of Holland and China, if the name of *style* can be given to such grotesque workmanship.

'The city of Washington, the present seat of the federal government, has been laid out on a plan of greater beauty, with less uniformity. Its site has been well chosen, being placed in the middle of that tract of country between Maryland and Virginia, in the vicinity of the Chesapeak, which is in a manner the heart of the United States, and on a rising ground to which the tides of the Potomack carry the largest vessels. The circumference of the town comprizes a surface of 4124 acres, of which 712 are reserved for avenues, and the remainder for houses: but, excepting a few public edifices, of which the principal is the house of Congress, bearing the pompous name of the Capitol, nothing is yet built; and it is evident that the great size of the plan will retard its execution, because the neighbouring country is by no means in a state to people so large a place. At present, Washington resembles one of those Russian towns which are to be seen in the deserts of Tartary; *i.e.* a few scattered houses, surrounded by naked fields.

'The other towns of the United States present nothing remarkable. The market-towns and villages are generally built, as in England, in a single street with a double row of houses: but they have generally on each side a garden or orchard, so that, if a fire break out, it is easily stopped. This mode of building is preferable to that which is commonly adopted in Europe; where the houses, crowded on each other, have all the inconveniences of a town without any of the recommendations of the country.'

Inland Communication.—The roads (as they are called) in the United States are, when at a distance from large towns, little else than lines or draughts of roads, in which the marshy part is kept in travelling condition by means of ditches, and the steep ascents are moderated by winding round eminences, or, in some cases, by levelling the more abrupt parts of the path. Few attempts, however, have yet been made to form permanent roads with stones or gravel; and much remains to be done even on the simple plan of altering the direction of them according to the slope of the hills or the course of the streams. A few rail-roads have been constructed in the neighbourhood of coal-mines: but they have not yet been introduced in such of the carrying places as afford a favourable locality.—Bridges are in nearly as imperfect a state as the roads. The most remarkable is that of the Schuylkill on entering Philadelphia, which is seven hundred and fifty feet in length, and supported by only two piles: but these piles, distant nearly two hundred feet from each other, are of the most solid construction; and one of them has its foundation above twenty-four feet under the bed of the river. This bridge is forty-two feet wide, built of wood, covered in with a roof, and the whole is very neatly painted. Other bridges, such as that of Trenton over the Delaware, are not supported by piles, but are fixed on great iron-chains extending from one side of the river to the other. Bridges on this plan might be thrown over the rapid currents in the Alps and Pyrenees; and it is somewhat surprizing that they should not have been introduced there, since the least cultivated part of Europe may be considered as less backward than the United States.

The greatest improvement to be made in the inland-navigation of the United States, or indeed of any part of the world, would consist in digging a canal from a small lake called Chatauqua to lake Erie; whence is an easy communication to the adjacent lakes on the east and west. The small lake Chatauqua is important as the head of a river called Conowango, running southwards, and navigable in all its extent; falling eventually into the great river Alleghany. The length of navigation thus obtained would exceed two thousand miles; and a farther extension might be given to this wonderful course by digging a canal from the lake Michigan to the navigable part of the Illinois, which falls into the Mississippi. The expence of the whole would be between one and two millions sterling.

Form of Government.—We took occasion to give a brief sketch of the American constitution in a former volume, (M. R. vol. lxviii. p. 54.) and we shall now follow it up by some additional particulars.—With respect to provincial administration, each of the American states is divided into counties, each county into townships, and each township into parishes. The chief town of a county must be the seat of a court of justice, and each township must have a justice of the peace; and the latter has its local, the former its provincial magistrates. The other functions of government are delegated respectively to officers of a higher class; to the representatives in Congress, to a Governor for each state of the Union, and to Judges who act, as in England, in concurrence with juries. The number of states is now eighteen, and likely to be soon augmented; a population of sixty thousand giving the inhabitants a right to constitute themselves into a state, and to send two representatives to the Lower House. The amount of the latter is thus dependent on the population of the particular states: but that of the senators is fixed, each state sending two. The representatives are elected for two years only; the senators for six; and the latter, considered as a body, undergo only gradual renovation, no more than one-third of the members retiring every two years.

The executive power in the United States has by no means the weight that ought to belong to that department of government; which is owing partly to the immense extent of the territory, and partly to defects inherent in the federal constitution. The consequence is a great diversity of feeling in the different states, those of the north being opposed to those of the south; while a third discrepancy may be said to exist in the political temper of Pennsylvania, and the other middle provinces. The President and the secretaries of state, who form the executive government, are thus under the necessity of throwing themselves into the arms of the party which happens to be strongest in Congress. Had they possessed the power of acting for themselves, and of giving a prompt direction to the resources of their country, neither France nor England would have ventured to controul the American navigation as they have done since 1807.

As the revenue of the United States, before their late contest with us, arose almost altogether from Custom-house-duties, the government might say with justice that the inhabitants never saw at their houses the face of a tax-gatherer. These duties were either *ad valorem*, or in some articles according to weight and measure. Nearly all manufactured goods come under the former description, and afford a large proportion of the public income. Of other articles, the principal contributions arose (Appendix, table 9.) from rum, sugar, coffee, wine, brandy, gin, tea, salt, &c. Their military and naval establishment was until the late war on a very economical footing; the former scarcely exceeding five thousand men, and the latter consisting of only eight or ten frigates, with a corresponding number of small vessels.

In the year 1805, the revenue and expenditure of America were calculated (see Appendix, table 16.) nearly thus:

Duties on imported goods, and on tonnage levied at the Custom-house, about	£3,320,000
Direct taxes, levied in the interior, -	200,000
Post-office duty, - - -	80,000
	£3,600,000

Expenditure.

Salaries of the President, ministers, senators, representatives, and judges, about	£220,000
Army, navy, and foreign embassies, about	900,000
For the interest and progressive redemption of the public debt, about	1,880,000
	£3,000,000

The expences of the late war have greatly altered the state of the budget, but the Americans are still the most lightly taxed of civilized people.

National Character.—The remarkable discrepancy in political feelings among the inhabitants of this country arises from difference of situation and local interest. The maritime states call on their government for a preference to navigation and foreign trade; while the inland states expect similar advantages for agriculture. Moreover, the distance and consequent want of intercourse between one province and another are sufficient to engender a striking difference in the feelings of individuals. Activity and enterprize mark the inhabitants of the northern states in a much higher degree than those of the middle or south. Of the Bostonians, it is whimsically said that they will go in quest of fortune to the extremity of the earth; of a Virginian, that he would hardly quit his native parish for it. The thirst of novelty is a striking feature in the character of the inhabitants both of the north and the middle states; and it is said of New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, that their inhabitants would not die contented if they had not changed their profession three or four times in the course of their lives. English manners prevail in the northern states; in the middle they are blended with the characteristics of the Irish, Germans, and French: but, to the south of the Potomac, the change is complete, the land-holder (or, as he is called, the planter,) giving himself very little trouble about business, managing his agriculture by means of slaves, and allowing the trade in the sea-ports to be conducted by foreigners. This luxurious proprietor of the soil passes his time at table, in horse-racing, or in gambling. In the western provinces, (we mean on the other side of the Alleghany range,) we meet with a more simple and laborious race.

Education, at least the elementary part, is generally diffused among the lower classes in the maritime states, almost every one being able to read, write, and cast accounts. The middling classes possess, in course, somewhat more, but nobody thinks of cultivating literature; and trade and money-making engross all their faculties. Accordingly, the progress of the Americans has been made, not in the elegant, but in the useful arts. Their architecture is very indifferent, but their ship-building is equal to that of any European nation. Some writers, particularly in France, have chosen to extol the moral character of the Americans; while others, and these we must confess are the greater number, have been equally loud in their censures: but the fact is that both have gone beyond the just medium. M. DE B. remarks:

> 'In that country, as in all others, we find a mixture of vice and virtue: but virtue appears there less attractive than elsewhere, because it is rarely accompanied by those graces which excite esteem; and vice seems more deformed, because the people are wholly ignorant of the art of hypocritical disguise. The American has a bluntness of manner which makes him appear with little advantage to strangers. Thus, among the travellers who have witnessed the politeness of European society, some deem him coarse and unpolished, because he is deficient in agreeableness of manner and delicacy of sentiment; while others consider him as proud, and vain, because he lays too much stress on wealth and ostentation. It must be confessed that merit obtains little respect in America when found in a low sphere; and the first question asked, on the introduction of a stranger, regards the amount of his property, as if it was intended to give every one a reception proportioned to his wealth. Name and rank are here out of the question; and the American estimates all men indiscriminately by one scale—that of fortune.'

It thus appears that a residence in the United States is not likely to be consonant with the feelings either of men of property who have been educated in good society, or of men of learning who are unprovided with the gifts of fortune. We need go no farther for the causes of the disappointment so often experienced by foreigners in that country:—but, even to those who carry thither the plainest habits and the simplest taste, American society offers few of the advantages that are obtained every where else; and the European, who may be condemned to live there, must seek for his enjoyments in the discharge of the duties of his station, or in the bosom of his family: a Frenchman, in particular, finds it difficult to form a society in America.

> 'He lives there almost as insulated as in Turkey; because, although occasional visiting prevails among the upper classes, it would seem to be intended among the females for nothing else than taking tea, and among the men for drinking wine and other liquors. The conversation of the latter turns commonly on politics, or on bargains, which one proposes and another accepts; for the Ame-

rican loses no opportunity of enriching himself. Gain is the subject of all his conversations, and the motive of all his actions; so that perhaps no civilized nation exists in the world which supplies less generosity of sentiment, less elevation of character, and fewer of those pleasing or brilliant fancies which form the charm or the solace of life. A man here weighs every thing, calculates every thing, and sacrifices every thing to self-interest; he thinks of nothing but himself and his own concerns; looks on all disinterested actions as foibles; sets no value on the qualifications that are merely agreeable; appears a stranger to every idea of heroism or of glory; and sees nothing in history but a national romance.

'The leading feature and main spring of a republic are said to be virtue; that of the American republic is the love of money. This is, in some measure, an effect of the political equality which subsists among its citizens; and which, leaving no other criterion of distinction than wealth, stimulates them to seek its acquisition by every means in their power.* Justice is here always a calculation, never a virtuous sentiment; it is deaf to the cries of the unfortunate, and above all to the voice of the stranger. But, although honesty be not the favourite virtue of the American merchants, it is not (as it is sometimes said to be in Europe) entirely banished from the land; since, amid all the corruption of their maritime towns, men of upright character and rigid integrity are still to be found: while, in the country, and among the remote villages, much candour and good faith exist; so that fair and downright dispositions are not uncommon in the United States. The proud and lofty soul, however,—the generous and benevolent heart, — in short, whatever constitutes greatness of character,—is here much more rare than elsewhere.

'Yet, if the Americans have none, or few, of the eminent qualities which ennoble human nature, and excite admiration, they have others which, although more unassuming, are not less estimable, and contribute perhaps more to the welfare of society; such as a love of liberty, of labour, of regularity, and of cleanliness. Few mendicants are to be seen in the United States; every one who is able to work would be ashamed to live at the expence of others. A pleasing regularity also is discernible in every part of the country. On entering a house, even one of the least inviting exterior, the eye is agreeably struck with the order that prevails throughout. Nothing pleases a stranger more, on his first arrival, than the cleanliness visible in the streets, the houses, and the dress of the inhabitants. Every body is decently habited; the men in cloth coats as in Europe, the women in gowns, for the most part white; their linen constantly clean. The houses, whether of brick, or of wood, are always neatly and sometimes elegantly coloured; and, though they are not superbly furnished or ornamented, they want nothing that is necessary, and the whole is kept in a state of perfect neatness.

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* It is a curious fact that Mr. Fulton, whose name has figured in our news-papers as inventor of the *Torpedo*, proposed his discovery, first to France against England, next to England against France; and, on the refusal of each, to the United States against them both. *Rev.*

'The Americans are generally of tall stature and good shape; their limbs strong and well proportioned, and their looks fresh and ruddy: but they have seldom much delicacy of feature, or expression of countenance. The negroes who inhabit the United States, and are distinguished by their jet black skins and woolly hair, are in many respects superior to the aboriginal Indians. They appear more ingenious and more intelligent here than in the West Indies, and they live also more comfortably. This arises partly from their being well fed and clothed, and partly from their having more opportunity for acquiring their liberty; and, after its acquisition, they are less exposed to humiliation from the prejudices and contempt of the whites. But, while the black or African race has thus been greatly ameliorated by its connection with Europeans, the Indians, or red race, have in consequence of this connection become a prey to several vices (such as the habit of drinking,) to which they were formerly strangers, and which will contribute to their depopulation much more rapidly than the distresses of war.'

Manufactures. — These, being completely exempt from monopolies or prohibitions, might be expected to advance rapidly in the United States: but they are retarded by a very formidable obstacle, the high price of labour. In France, the average wages of a mechanic are about 15d. in the country, and 20d. in a town: in England, they are apparently double, though, in consequence of the superiority of our tools and the great division of labour, the difference is less than it seems: but in America they are, all things considered, fully triple the rates of France. The consequence was that the Americans paid little attention to manufactures until the late war, and particularly till the year 1805; and the change is chiefly to be attributed to the difficulties thrown in the way of the navigation and commerce of neutrals by our Orders in Council.

'The annual value of American manufactures is now estimated at 4 or 5,000,000l. sterling, after the cost of the raw materials has been deducted. The principal branch of the industry of their mechanics is ship-building, and the Americans rival in this respect the most industrious nations of Europe. The best ships are constructed in the dock-yards of Philadelphia, Baltimore, and New York: but the strongest of all are those that are made of the wood of Carolina in the ports of the south. The quantity of shipping annually built in the different dock-yards is estimated at nearly 100,000 tons. The business of wheelwright and carpenter is well understood in all the principal towns; and the furniture and vehicles made at Philadelphia find a ready market in the West Indies, and even in South America. Philadelphia is also the place in which brewing, distilling, and sugar-refining have been brought to the greatest perfection. At Boston, and in several other towns of Massachusetts, Rhode-island, and Connecticut, spinning machines for cotton are erected, which are driven by steam-engines, where the cotton is picked, spun, and wound off at the same time: but the cotton-cloths manufactured in the United States are in general of a coarse quality. The manufacture of wool, hemp, and flax is chiefly confined to private families; and all woollen and linen cloth of a fine texture is imported from other countries. At Danbury in Connecticut, is a very fine manufacture of hats; beaver and woollen hats are also made at Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and in the other principal towns. The knitting of stockings is practised on an extensive scale at German-town in Pennsylvania, as well as in several of the principal market-towns and villages: but, generally speaking, little machinery for this purpose is erected in the United States, and the hosiery is as yet very coarse. Silk manufactures are altogether unknown.

'Coarse paper for writing and printing is made in almost every province; and printing-presses are established in the smallest towns for the publication of weekly and even daily news-papers. Imitations of English saddlery are attempted in the principal towns; several tanneries are established; and a large quantity of boots and shoes is exported from Salem, Boston, Providence, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, to the West-India islands. The best curriers are those of New Jersey and Pennsylvania; and the best tanners are those of the Delaware. The manufacture of clocks, watches, and jewellery is confined to the principal towns, but that of earthen-ware and coarse glass is sufficiently diffused. The best glass-works are those of Pittsburg, and the best potteries are at Philadelphia, where they imitate the Staffordshire-ware of Wedgewood. Iron founderies are established in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia; and agricultural and other instruments are made of this material in several states, particularly in those of the north. Cannon-founderies are formed at Philadelphia, at Richmond, and in the neighbourhood of Washington, at which are annually cast from 2 to 300 pieces of artillery; while the manufactories of arms at Springfield, Newhaven, and Harper's Ferry, send out from 20 to 30,000 muskets.

'Generally speaking, however, the manufactures of America are very backward, and far from being on a level with those of Europe, except in the coarse articles which may be considered as necessaries of life: in all others, especially such as require neat workmanship and a great division of labour, they are still very far behind.'

Foreign Trade. — M. DE BEAUJOUR is very explicit, particularly in his Appendix, on this head; and he fully confirms the statements so often made in our pages, of the large balance remitted to England in years of peace from the sale of American goods on the Continent of Europe. He shews also (Appendix, table 11.) that large sums are annually sent in specie by the Americans to our possessions in India. The total balance thus paid to us he computes (p. 109.) at twenty-five millions of dollars, (between four and five millions sterling,) a sum corresponding to the estimate of Mr. Baring in his well-known pamphlet on the Orders in Council, and resting (tables 10, 11. in M. DE BEAUJOUR's Appendix,) on the evidence of official returns. These documents shew that, while America exports to England only four millions sterling in merchandise, she receives from her nearly nine millions; while the exports of America to France, Holland, and the rest of Europe, greatly exceed her imports. The balance, says the author, '*est payé par l'argent du continent; tout va pour soudoyer l'industrie Anglaise.*' What infatuation could induce our government to tamper, by our Orders in Council, with so rich a source of revenue?

M. DE BEAUJOUR seems fond of statistical calculations. He attempts (table 6.) an estimate of the annual returns of the whole productive capital of the United States, and arrives at a computation which, when adapted to the present year, may be thus stated:

Agriculture, -	£40,000,000	Forests,	£4,000,000
Manufactures,	10,000,000	Fisheries,	2,000,000
Navigation and foreign Trade,	8,000,000		

These calculations, however, are necessarily conjectural, and are to be understood as indicative of the whole national income on an estimate formed from the total income of individuals; they bear, of course, no reference to the receipts of the public treasury. The circulating medium in the United States is partly paper, partly metallic: but the latter, being said not to exceed five millions sterling, would be wholly inadequate to a country of such extent, were not the deficiency supplied by a number of banks, whose collective issues are calculated at eight or nine millions sterling. Still the total affords a result of very moderate amount, when compared to a country like France, in which the want of confidence necessitates the exclusive use of coin. If the currency of France amounts, as it is generally supposed, to nearly a hundred millions sterling, the result is as three to one on comparing the population of that kingdom and the United States, and calculating at so much per head.

The latter part of the volume describes the commercial relations of the United States with the rest of the world, particularly with France and England. It is observed that 'the misfortune of a French trader is his impatience to make money; together with his want of that sound reasoning which leads the Dutch and British merchant to be satisfied with a small profit, in the hope of a great eventual gain by extension of business.' Nothing can be more just than this remark on the conduct of individuals: but it is followed by observations on the national policy with which we can by no means concur. M. DE BEAUJOUR, being one of those discontented Frenchmen who regard England as the cause of all the late misfortunes of his country, declaims (pp. 205. 214.) in a violent strain againt our monopolizing spirit, and spares no pains (p. 181. *et seq.*) to persuade the Americans to trade, by preference, with France. It is from the same motive of opposition to our interference, that he employs so many paragraphs (p. 150. *et seq.*) in urging the Americans to increase their army and navy. In truth, from the moment at which the author takes leave of local description, and attempts to make excursions in the field of political reasoning, his readers must keep a strict watch against his insinuating but fallacious argumentation. He finds it necessary, however, to allow that among all nations we are likely to profit most by the increasing prosperity of America.

'The intercourse (he says) between England and the United States is daily on the increase, and will continue so in a greater proportion than between the United States and the other parts of the world. Several reasons may be assigned for this fact: but the principal are to be sought in the superiority of the capital and machinery of England, as well as in the analogy between the manners and customs of the two nations. The English are of all people the best provided with capital; they can therefore give the longest credit. Now the Americans are of all nations the one which by its vast means of giving employment to capital stands most in need of credit. The English not only lend to the Americans to assist them in establishing a business, but are always making them fresh advances to enable them to pay off their former debts; and thus is formed between them a golden chain of much greater strength than any political tie.

'The great amount of capital circulating in England has introduced into her manufactures a minute division of labour, with much ingenious machinery calculated to abridge it; and these improvements have produced such a reduction in the share of manual labour required, that the English, in spite of their enormous taxes, are able to furnish the foreign markets at a cheaper rate than any other nation. The products of English industry are likewise better adapted to the political condition of the United States than those of any other people. Above all, it ought to be considered that two nations speaking the same language are perpetually making an exchange of their thoughts and sentiments, which excites and facilitates every other exchange; while nations who speak a different language remain mutual strangers, notwithstanding all the advantages that otherwise might tend to bring them together.'

M. de Beaujour is not (p. 246.) among the number of those who desire the emancipation of the Spanish Americans, whom he considers as not yet arrived at the proper stage of civilization.

With regard to the North Americans, he apologizes, in his preface, for the freedom taken in some respects with their national character. 'I have spoken,' he says, 'without reserve of what is good and what is bad among them, not with a view to gratify the pride of any other nation by the contrast, but in the hope of accomplishing a good purpose. Nations, like individuals, should be frequently reminded that their real well-wisher is he who exhibits a faithful view of their defects; not he who keeps them in the back-ground, and who brings forwards only the flattering part of the picture.' — Notwithstanding his long absence from the shores of the Mediterranean, M. de B. still dwells with partiality on the associates of his earlier days, and is fond of exhibiting (p. 243.) the inhabitants of the south of Europe as characterized by many estimable features. Indeed, his warmth of imagination fitted him better for appreciating the qualities of ardent characters, than the sober calculating habits of the Americans; and the same cause may probably suffice to account for one of the chief defects of his work, viz. a very limited knowlege of a study requiring a large share of deliberate reflection, we mean political economy. This is apparent in a number of passages; (pp. 109. 179. 199. 235.) and an essay under the title of '*Notions d'Economie Politique*,' subjoined to the volume, is not calculated to redeem the misapprehensions in the preceding pages, and ought, moreover, to have found a place elsewhere. On the other hand, his expressions are concise and his style is lively; his reader experiences no fatigue, and in truth is not a little in danger of being carried along with him in passages in which he seems to have written more from imagination than conviction. Of that nature we must account the paragraphs (p. 144.) in which he accuses the Americans indiscriminately of want of religion, and (p. 183.) enlarges vehemently on their prejudices against France. We would fain hope, likewise, out of charity to our Trans-atlantic brethren, that the passage (p. 156.) descriptive of their thirst of money-getting is much over strained. From all these deductions, it appears that M. de Beaujour, matured as he is in years and experience, is still a Frenchman, and must be followed with reserve.

One of the most instructive parts of the book is the Appendix, consisting of a succession of tables of the trade, population, revenue, and national resources of America. We have selected the more important of these documents, and with them we conclude our extracts.

‘ *Progress of American Shipping.*

Years.	Tons.	Men.	Years.	Tons.	Men.
1790.	486,000	25,000	1798.	893,329	62,300
1791.	502,698	28,000	1799.	920,000	63,500
1792.	567,628	30,000	1800.	972,000	64,000
1793.	627,670	33,060	1801.	947,576	63,800
1794.	628,617	39,900	1802.	1,003,002	64,200
1795.	747,964	45,000	1803.	1,007,323	64,500
1796.	831,900	51,500	1805.	1,010,141	66,000
1797.	876,912 -	60,200	1806.	1,140,368	70,000

‘ **The following Table of the Exports in 1805, shews the relative Trade of the different Maritime States.**

	Sterling.		Sterling.
New York about	£5,000,000	New Orleans, and the Mississippi generally, -	£1,000,000
Massachusetts -	4,000,000	Connecticut - -	300,000
Pennsylvania -	2,800,000	North Carolina -	200,000
Maryland - -	2,300,000	New Hampshire -	150,000
South Carolina -	2,100,000		
Virgina - -	1,400,000		

‘ Foreign Trade of the United States with all Parts of the World; computed on an Average of Three Years, viz. 1802, 1803, 1804.

Exports of Home-produce.

	Value in Dollars.
Corn and Flour	13,040,000
Fish, salt and pickled	2,848,000
Beef, Pork, Butter, and Cheese	3,728,000
Cotton - -	6,940,000
Tobacco - -	6,143,000
Wood for building, Naval Stores, and Potash - -	4,387,000
Other Articles -	2,842,000
	39,928,000

Exports, or rather Re-exports of Foreign Manufactures and Produce.

	Value in Dollars.
Brought up	39,928,000
Commodities paying Duties *ad valorem*, being chiefly Foreign Manufactures	9,772,000
Coffee - -	7,302,000
Sugar - -	5,775,000
Cotton, Cocoa, Indigo, and Spices	2,490,000
Tea - -	1,304,000
Wine - -	1,108,000
Strong Liquors -	642,000
Other Articles -	140,000
Total of Exports	68,461,000

This Exportation took place to the following Countries.

	Dollars.
To Great Britain	23,707,000
To Russia, Prussia, and Germany	7,969,000
To Holland, Spain, France, and Italy - -	30,678,000
To Portugal -	2,321,000
To other Countries	3,786,000
Total as before -	68,461,000

Imports to the United States.

	Value in Dollars.
From Great Britain	35,970,000
From Russia, Prussia, and Germany - -	7,094,000
From Holland, France, Spain, and Italy -	25,475,000
From Portugal -	1,083,000
From China - -	4,856,000
From other Countries	838,000
Total -	75,316,000

‘ Tabular Sketch of the Trade between the United States and Great Britain and the British Possessions, on an Average of the Years 1802, 1803, 1804.

‘ *Great Britain.*

Exports to

	Dollars.
Cotton - -	5,640,000
Tobacco - -	3,220,000
Flour and Provisions generally	2,160,000
Wood for building, Naval Stores and Potash - -	1,510,000
Other Articles of American Growth	900,000
Articles of Foreign Growth -	2,260,000
	15,690,000

Imports from

	Dollars.
Merchandise, chiefly Manufactures, such as Broad - Cloths, Hardware, Printed Cottons, Pottery Ware -	26,060,000
Other Articles, such as Beer, Tin, Iron, &c.	1,340,000
	27,400,000

The large balance due to England is paid by money-remittances from the Continent of Europe.

‘ *British India.*

Exports to

	Dollars.
Produce, American as well as Foreign, only - -	130,000

Imports from

	Dollars.
Manufactured Goods, principally Cottons -	2,950,000
Produce, Sugar, Pepper, &c. -	580,000
	3,530,000’

The large balance due to British India is paid by the Americans in specie.

' *British North America, comprizing Newfoundland.*

Exports to	Dollars.
Provisions and Cattle	530,000
Wood for building, Naval Stores, and Potash - -	90,000
Hides and Peltry	160,000
Other American Produce - -	60,000
Foreign Produce -	160,000
	1,000,000

Imports from	Dollars.
Articles for Indian Traffic, Salt Fish, &c. - -	540,000

' *British West Indies.*

Exports to	Dollars.
Flour and Provisions in general -	4,720,000
Wood for building	990,000
Other Articles of American Growth	340,000
Foreign Commodities	430,000
	6,480,000

Imports from	Dollars.
Rum - -	2,440,000
Sugar and Coffee -	1,480,000
Other Produce -	650,000
	4,570,000

The balance due to the United States is paid in dollars, or by bills on England, the planters not being permitted to discharge it in produce.

' SUMMARY.

Exports to	Dollars.
Great Britain	15,690,000
British India -	130,000
British North America	1,000,000
Brit. W. Indies	6,480,000
	23,300,000
Balance payable to G. B. in Money	12,740,000
Total -	36,040,000

Imports from	Dollars.
Great Britain	27,400,000
British India -	3,530,000
British North America	540,000
British West Indies -	4,570,000
Total -	36,040,000

This balance was much increased in the years 1805, 1806, and 1807.

ART.

ART. VIII. *Histoire des Républiques Italiennes*, &c.; *i. e.* The History of the Italian Republics, by M. SIMONDE DE SISMONDI.

[*Art. continued from the last Appendix.*]

THE history of antient Rome is the subject of our earliest studies, and possibly the most delightful of our oldest remembrances; while the history of the same country, and almost the same people and language, revived and brought back to youth and vigour, is either absolutely unknown, or only sketched out here and there as it may chance to be blended with the great mass of European annals. Considered separately, it is a question whether the Spanish and Portuguese possessions of America, or even the more barbarous parts of the same continent, are not as much the object of our curiosity as the states which produced the first historians, poets, antiquaries, legislators, painters, architects, sculptors, navigators, and mechanics of modern Europe. Is it that, measuring ourselves with Italy as she now is, we cannot reconcile to our minds the notion of what she was, while our island was wrapt, in common with the rest of Europe, in the profoundest darkness? Is it that no annalist, before the time of M. DE SISMONDI, has collected together the scattered elements of Italian history? Is it that, in our hasty and erroneous estimation, the fierce democrat of Florence or the aristrocrat of Venice sinks into insignificance before the same two characters as we read of them in Roman story? Is it that, lost in the present, we forget the past, and are happy to forget it? We cannot trace this indifference to a grand and glowing history, without a wish and an endeavour to dispel it; and, in pursuance of this attempt to awaken curiosity and direct it to an almost new source of information, we shall endeavour to remount the stream of time, and descend again with the present historian to the commencement of "that day of wrath," on which the sun of Italy grew pale, and sank beneath the horizon, we fear, never to rise and shine again.

Having conducted the principal Italian states, with the exception of Florence, through a series of centuries and disasters to their final comparative independence, we find ourselves arrested at the dawn of better days by the commencement of a party-war, the longest and most outrageous that ever alternately disgraced and adorned the pages of history. The four last emperors were of the Franconian house known by the name of Gueibeling, or Waibling; a castle of the diocese of Augsburgh in the mountains of Hertfeld: the partisans of which house were afterward designated by the name of Ghibelline. Another powerful house, originally of

Altdorf, was possessed, at this epoch, of Bavaria; and, as many of its princes bore the name of Guelf, their partisans were known by the appellation of Guelfi. The last two Henrys had been distinguished by their long wars with the church; and from this circumstance, more than from any consistent plan adopted by the successors in that family, the Ghibellines were esteemed the enemies of the church, and friends to the noblesse: while the Guelfs were viewed as the protectors of the Holy See, and defenders of the people against the encroachments of their princes. The contest between these two rival houses in the persons of their sovereigns, who were equal in weakness, and equally dependent on the affections of the people for the support of their claims, first taught the Italian republics to despise the imperial authority; while a schism in the church diminished their respect for the pontiffs, and encouraged the people of Rome to withdraw from their obedience.

Unmolested independence, however, has never been the lot of any people. Hardly had the cities tasted the sweets of those liberties which they had earned by a long and persevering opposition to their great and their less tyrants, when an enemy appeared, in the person of *Frederic Barbarossa*, who at once threatened their freedom and their existence. This great man, connecting in himself the families of Suàbia and Franconia known by the name of Ghibellines, and those of Bavaria and Saxony distinguished by that of Guelfs, was raised to the imperial throne for the express purpose of stopping the effusion of blood, and appeasing the exasperation of party. In the interior of Germany, all was peace during the greater portion of his reign; and, availing himself of these happy dispositions, he chose Italy and its independent republics as the objects against which to direct his force. The siege of Tortona was the signal for a general attack on Italian freedom; and the destruction of the city of Milan, with the dispersion of its brave inhabitants, gave rise to that noble coalition, known by the name of the Lombard-league, which encountered, baffled, and at length defeated all his plans for trampling on new-born liberty. Every thing prospered with the Lombard-league; *Barbarossa* was driven from Italy with disgrace; his partisans were humbled; and, with the exception of the single city of Pavia, all had been compelled to abandon the royal cause, and to embrace that of the republics. Milan and Tortona, which *Frederic* had wished to destroy, rose more flourishing from their ruins; and Alessandria, a new city established in hatred of his power, shut him out from the March of Piedmont. The foundation of this last city in the middle of the twelfth century demands a short notice. At a time when all Lombardy, with the exception of the upper Montferrat and Pavia, were leagued against *Barbarossa*, the contracting parties, determined to prevent the intercourse of the marquisate with the republic, selected a spot immediately between them which they destined to be the bulwark of republicanism whenever they should be driven to extremities. In consequence, all the troops of Milan, Cremona, and Placentia directed their march on the confines of these two states; and in that vast and magnificent plain they made choice of a situation which nature appears to have fortified, at the confluence of the Tanaro and the Bormida, two of the largest rivers which flow down from the mountains at the right of the Po. These torrents, irregular in their course, do not hollow out for themselves a bed of sufficient depth to present every where an insurmountable barrier to armies: but their fords are variable; and their annual inundations form a sufficient defence in the season chosen by the Germans for warfare. A deep clay, penetrated by water during the winter, opposes the progress of troops and the possibility of encamping; in summer, vast beds of gravel left dry by the rivers reflect the rays of a scorching sun; and the absence of any hedge or tree exposes the troops who attempt to approach the city to arrows shot from the walls. In this place, at 25 miles W. S. W. of Pavia, 15 miles N. of Asti, and 40 from Milan, the Lombards founded a new city destined to eternize the memory of their resistance, and of their zeal for the church and for liberty. After the name of the chief of their league, and father of the faithful, they called it Alessandria; they surrounded it with a large ditch, into which they conducted the water of two neighbouring rivers; and, to render it at once populous and powerful, they transported thither all the inhabitants of the surrounding villages, Marengo, Gamundia, Bergulio, Hunilla, and Solestia:—they built for them houses; they authorized them to constitute a free and republican government; they insured to them all the privileges for which they themselves were contending; and they engaged the pope to found in their favour a new bishopric. From the very first year, the Alessandrians were able to send into the field an army of 15,000 combatants. The city was originally built of mud and straw; and hence the name of *Alessandria della paglia* has remained long after the substitution of marble and of stone for these rude materials of its early condition. Fortunately for this infant-state, the Emperor and his enemies were so reduced by their exertions, that six years were necessary for either party to recruit for future campaigns: but the time of trial arrived; and the new walls were scarcely consolidated by materials that promised resistance, when *Frederic* appeared beneath them. Nevertheless, his power, already shaken by the Milanese and their allies, was doomed here to be broken before a city built in haste, and his disorderly retreat formed the first epoch in the annals of the republic. The immunities which the cities obtained by force of arms were secured to them by the truce of Venice, and the treaty of Constance.

Scarcely was the independence of the cities recognized by the Emperor, when it was again hazarded in long and difficult contests with the lords of the country; and the flame of liberty, kindled by opposition to a foreign despot, was alternately fanned by new victories and extinguished by new defeats in their struggle with domestic tyrants. "In the year 1200," says the Chronicle of Padua, "the Plebeians took away from the nobles the administration of the city, and kept it in their own hands."—The people of Bologna and Milan signalized themselves by their jealousy of the nobles. That dreaded order was forcibly compelled to fly from Bologna; and, taking refuge at Cremona, it formed a military company which was called the Society of Saint Faustus: while the Plebeians on their side established a counter-association known by the name of Bruzella. The name of Bruzella or Brughella is preserved to these days, and makes one of the four masks of the Italian theatre.

The Popes, raised by *Charlemagne* and his immediate successors to a high degree of power, were called to a new struggle in the eleventh, thirteenth, and sixteenth centuries. *Gregory* VII. in the first, *Innocent* III. in the second, and *Julius* II. in the third of these periods, are the men who reconquered the temporal authority, and gave a consolidation to the authority of the church. The establishment of a power of the first order, which has frequently courted the alliance of the free cities and as frequently oppressed them, and has taken part in their revolutions, should always constitute an essential feature in the history of Italian liberty.

Between the Popes and the Emperors, a constant opposition subsisted, which was the necessary consequence of the rank of these two chieftains of Christendom, of their prerogatives, and their pretensions. They might agree with each other for a truce: but, while the Popes refused to renounce their dominion over all the thrones in the world, and while the Emperors refused to strip themselves of their more important rights, it was impossible to conclude a sincere peace. When their dissentions did not amount to open war, the cause was ordinarily to be found in the marked ascendancy of one over the other party: — an equilibrium always brought on war. Since the peace at Constance, the imperial cause had recovered in Italy a great preponderance: *Frederic* I. had on his side his glory and his power; and the marriage of his son with the heiress of Naples had deprived the pontiff of an antient and faithful ally, at the same time that it doubled the forces of his adversary. We have in our first article given an account of the territorial possessions left by the Countess Matilda, and claimed by the pontiffs of Rome. Of these provinces, the Emperor, *Henry* VI., had kept possession, in defiance of the reclamations made by the Roman court: but the deaths of *Henry* and of *Celestine* III. so changed the proportion of the imperial and pontifical parties, that the latter was able in his turn to effect conquests over the royal authority, without experiencing resistance, or even incurring the imputation of ambition. On one side, *Innocent* III., a noble Roman, who had only attained his thirty-seventh year, was elected to succeed to *Celestine*, and brought to the administration a profound knowlege of the interests of his country and the Holy See; the courage and ambition of a gentleman yet young; and the reputation of sanctity and of knowlege, which he owed to a regular course of life and to writings esteemed in the age. On the other side, *Frederic* II., successor to *Henry*, was an infant only two years old, and his mother *Constance* had embraced the papal cause. All these advantages were turned by *Innocent* to his own interest; and, adroitly profiting by every favourable circumstance, he succeeded in raising to himself a dynasty which might at times be shaken, but which remains to this day respected even in its ruin. Among the states of Italy, Genoa was usually attached to the Emperors and Ghibellines, while Tuscany embraced the papal and Guelf factions. Either party was advantageous to the freedom of the cities; since those which sided with the Emperor procured immunities for their services; and those which took part against him were the workers of their own independence.

'We now arrive at the year 1215; an epoch at which the most illustrious and most durable of the Italian republics, that of Florence, begins to fix the regards of history. The city of Florence was probably a mere suburb of Fiesole, an antient city of the Etrusci, and hence its foundation is lost in some obscurity: but Lucius Sylla the dictator planted in it a Roman colony, and traced out the walls on the smiling borders of the Arno, at the foot of the Appennines, between hills covered with olive and fig-trees, and all the productions of the hottest climates. No city has received from nature more advantages than Florence. Even in the hottest seasons, the air is ever wholesome; limpid waters descend from the

Appennines; and the magnificence of the Florentine citizens of the middle age has adorned and refreshed it by sumptuous fountains. The plain which extends from the gates of Florence into the lower Arno is covered with mulberries and vines trained up into trees; it lavishes every summer its rich harvests of wheat and Turkish corn; and five crops succeed each other rapidly in the space of three years. On the side of the Appennines, rises an amphitheatre of beautiful hills, producing the most exquisite oil and wine of Italy; and, farther on, lofty mountains, covered with vast forests of chesnut-trees, offer their tribute for the poor man's nourishment, without requiring any other labour than that of gathering their yearly fruit.

'The Mugnone and many other rivers enrich the land which they water; the agriculturist borrows from the Arno itself a part of its stream; and this river, which during the great heats almost abandons its bed, fills it again during the rainy season, and opens an easy and expeditious communication with Pisa and the sea by means of light barks.

'Florence, adorned with hot baths, theatres, and aqueducts, in the time of Sylla, was almost ruined by Totila king of the Goths, during the war which he supported against the Generals of Justinian: but the city was afterward rebuilt by Charlemagne; and it devoted the four ages which elapsed since the reign of its new founder to the perfection of its municipal administration. During this time, it compelled all the nobles of the neighbourhood to enrol themselves in the number of Florentine citizens, and reduced their fiefs to its jurisdiction. Up to the year 1207, Florence was governed by consuls chosen among its best citizens, and by a senate of a hundred persons.'

Although the Florentine nobility, who had hitherto been rulers of the republic, could not be indifferent to the quarrels between the Emperors and the Popes, the internal peace of the state had not yet been disturbed; and though it had been engaged in the Tuscan league, it had not committed itself by any of those acts of vigour which give the pledge of supporting a party-interest. In this city, as in all small states, the leading families of nobles, from their frequent contact, became rivals, and from rivals became the enemies of each other. A quarrel which had broken out between the families of the Buondelmonti and the Uberti caused the first bloodshed: each faction sought new pretexts for exasperation; and, without any political feeling at the beginning, each attached to his personal hatred the fresh aggravation that was derived from party. Forty-two families of the first rank declared themselves for the Buondelmonti and the Guelfs; and twenty-four others sided with the Uberti and the Ghibellines. Frequent combats ensued between the families and their partizans; each built towers and fortified their palaces; and yet for thirty-three years they lived together within the precincts of the same walls, sometimes curbed, sometimes overawing the public authority. At length, the Guelfs were compelled to retire from the city in 1248, and thus a partial tranquillity was restored. Though thirty-three years of almost uninterrupted wars had not the effect of accustoming the nation to arms, and of preparing it for future conquests, these protracted commotions impressed a peculiar character on the architecture of the city; a character which is not to this day effaced, because succeeding architects, without accounting for the national style, have imitated it in their edifices. The Florentine palaces are square heavy masses, not to be shaken by time, and of which the principal ornament is their strength. " They consist of thick embossed walls, with doors raised above the ground, to which it is necessary to ascend from the street; and having in them large rings of iron or of bronze, in which torches were placed in public illuminations, and the flags of partizans were planted."

The manners of the Florentines in the middle of the thirteenth century are thus pourtrayed by the elder *Villani*. (*Storie Fiorentine*, L. vi. c. 70.)

" At this time, the citizens of Florence lived soberly; their provisions were simple and their expences small. Some of their customs will appear to us rude and barbarous; they and their wives were clothed with the coarsest stuffs; many of them even wore skins without lining for their habits, with caps on their heads, and wooden shoes on their feet. The greatest ladies fancied themselves in grand *costume* when attired in a close robe of coarse scarlet cloth, fastened by a metal girdle, and a fur-cloak with a hood that covered the head: while the ordinary classes of females wore a dress of the same form, but of coarse Cambray green. The most frequent dowry for daughters did not exceed a hundred livres: but those who gave largely made it amount to two or at most to three hundred, and this last sum was considered as a very large portion. The generality of females did not marry until they had passed the age of twenty. With these rude manners and customs, the Florentines had a loyal spirit; they were faithful one to the other, and wished to see the same fidelity observed in the affairs of their country. Notwithstanding their rustic and poor mode of life, they performed the most virtuous actions; and they contributed more to the honour of their home and their country than we of this day who live with more effeminacy."

A people accustomed by choice to habits of this noble temperance, enriched by a moderate and not a monopolizing commerce, and within reach of all the blessings which sweeten life, will not long remain enslaved. The new government established by the Ghibellines with the assistance of *Frederic* was essentially aristrocratic; and, as this general simplicity of life extended also to the noble families, the power of these families was as conspicuous in arms as in their rights acknowleged by the laws. All the brothers married; all had numerous children habituated to the exercise of arms; and we hear of some families who counted as far as three hundred individuals. The family of the *Uberti* was the most powerful of Florence and perhaps the proudest, had brought about the revolution, corresponded with the Emperor, and possessed in the city the best fortified palaces. The nobles often in the insolence of power vexed the plebeians by extortions, acts of violence, and injuries. On the 20th October, 1250, even before the death of *Frederic*, all the richest citizens of Florence were excited to take up arms, and assembled on the place called *Santa Croce*, in front of a church which then saw for the first time the formation of a popular state; where the tombs of the great men of the city were afterward built, and where the republic of the dead is yet assembled to reproach the littleness of the living. Having forced the Podestat to resign, they replaced him by the nomination of *Uberto* of Lucca to the captaincy of the people. A council was formed of two members chosen in each quarter of the city, which took the name of *Signoria*, and was to be renewed every two months. The organization of the military force was the first care of the new government. They had no reason to apprehend usurpation from their army, because that army was the nation itself. All the citizens within the walls were enrolled in one of the twenty companies of militia; all the country was portioned out to ninety-six companies of auxiliaries: the soldiers named their officers; all submitted to the captain of the people; all at the first alarm were bound to appear on the parade; and the first thought of the troops was to chuse the devices and colours of their standards.

'Another regulation, not less necessary to insure the power of the community against the enterprizes of the nobles, was the demolition of the fortresses by means of which they had placed themselves above the laws. The first law passed in the name of the people commanded them to lower their walls to a certain height. The materials furnished by the demolition of so many private fortifications were employed for the common defence; and the walls of the city in the southern quarter of the Arno were built with them. At the same time, was founded the palace of the Podestat; that massive and imposing fortress which is converted in these days into a prison. Here were lodged the members of the government, who till this time had inhabited private houses, and assembled only in churches.'

With the revolution arose the decided preference of the people for the Guelf interest, which from this epoch was the term affixed to republican feelings: the exiled members of this party were recalled; and all offices of trust and importance were confided to their care. No sooner was the government tolerably established, than it directed its endeavours to gain over to its side the whole of Tuscany; and this attempt engaged it in wars with Pistoia, Pisa, Sienna, Volterra, and the gentlemen or nobles of their own immediate country. The advantages gained over these cities had the effect of adding assurance to their imperfect notions of discipline: but the republic, possessed as it was of great political courage, was by its very jealousy for its liberties precluded from measuring itself with the well-trained and well-conducted bands of depredators whose whole duty and science were war. In commemoration of its early successes, the republic decided on stamping a golden coin, called Florin, which it fixed in its most correct valuation at twenty-four carats; and in the midst of the monied revolutions, and while the bad faith of other governments has changed the value of coin from one extremity of Europe to the other, the florin or sequin of Florence has ever remained stationary as to weight and purity, and yet bears the impression which it received in 1252. Its value in French silver is 11 livres, 8 sols.

In more than one respect, Florence may be compared to Athens and Rome. Her devotion to liberty was equally enthusiastic; and, in resemblance of her great precursors in this career, her men of letters were usually to be found among her warriors. *Brunetto Latini*, one of the restorers of literature in Italy, author of a book intitled *The Treasure*, containing all the knowlege of the day, and the beloved master of *Dante*, served in the army against Sienna; and, in virtue of his office as notary, he drew up and signed the treaty of peace between the two states. If, however, the modern republic was not equal to the two antient republics in war, her moderation in her more temperate successes is an example to all other nations. After having entered the city of Volterra sword in hand, the Florentine conquerors halted in their career; not a drop of blood was shed, not a house was plundered; they were contented with the simple reform of a Ghibelline government into the principles of the Guelf party; and the liberty and happiness of the conquered were the sole consequences of their defeat. Their conduct in re-establishing the Ghibellines their enemies at Arezzo, which had been wrested from them contrary to the faith of treaties, is yet more noble and disinterested.

If any incentive could be given to liberty more powerful than the love of liberty itself, it was to be found in the conduct of the tyrants *Castruccio* of Pisa, and *Eccelino* of Milan. As all the cruelties of the former were exercised and surpassed by the latter, we shall content ourselves with stating that, besides burying alive with the head downwards, which was a punishment common to both these powerful and wicked men, and inflicted on the friends of rational freedom, *Eccelino* had carried the arts of torture to a refinement which left all the sanguinary inventions of the Neros, Caligulas, and Domitians of antient days far behind. Besides mutilation of different members of the body, which was so frequent as to spread over almost the whole Italian peninsula objects of horror and disgust, it was usual with him to immure some hundreds of his victims in towers and strong places, and, having closed the door with bricks, to abandon them without food to their destiny. These miserable beings were seen at the grated windows of a tower near Milan in the different stages of famine, looking with imploring but hopeless eyes on those who passed; and the slightest resistance to tyranny served but to fill other towers with new sacrifices to an unexampled barbarism. Towards the middle of the thirteenth century, the earth appeared sick of this monster; and a crusade was promulgated by Alexander the Fourth, in a letter addressed to all bishops, nobles, and the free cities of Lombardy and the march of Treviso; exhorting them to take up arms against "a son of perdition," "a man of blood," "a man reprobated by heaven," "the most inhuman of the sons of men," who, availing himself of the disorders of the age, had usurped and abused despotic power. Without detailing the reverses and the successes experienced by the allied states in their contests with this unnatural but powerful man, we copy partly from the Chronicle of Asti and partly from the volumes before us a delineation of his conduct when made prisoner.

Eccelino now shut himself up in a menacing silence; rivetting his ferocious countenance to the ground, and stifling his profound indignation. The soldiers and people flocked from all quarters, desirous of seeing that man who was lately so terrible, that famous prince who was cruel beyond all the princes of the earth; and universal joy burst forth on every side. The chiefs of the army permitted not the slightest outrage to his person; he was conducted into the tent of *Buoso da Doara*, and physicians were called in to attend him: but he rejected their good offices, tore open his wounds, and on the eleventh day of his captivity died at Soncino, where his body lies interred. He was small of stature, but his aspect and all his motions indicated the soldier. His language was bitter, his deportment proud, and by his looks alone he struck terror into the heart. His soul, so thirsty for every crime, was insensible to all pleasures of sense; he loved not woman; and for this reason he was as pitiless in inflicting torture on females as on men. He was sixty-six years of age at the time of his death, during thirty-four of which he had reigned in blood.

Ten years had elapsed since the establishment of Florentine liberty, when it was shaken by the defeat at Abbià, the flight of all the Guelf families, (who were the bulwark of freedom,) and the entrance of the Ghibelline emigrants in the train of the victorious Siennese. At the head of these enemies was *Farinata dei Uberti*. Possessed of the city, the conquerors debated concerning its demolition; and many of the noble Ghibellines, whose fathers had enjoyed rights and privileges inconsistent with the happiness of the nation, united themselves to the people of Sienna in their votes for the cruel destruction of the palladium of liberty and the arts: but this great people, superior in all things to the other states of Italy, found among their defenders that same *Farinata* who had conquered, but for a moment, their independence; and his speech in opposition to the decree of a hostile council remains an equal example of eloquence and virtue.

We remarked, in our first notice of this work, the want of unity to which the history of many independent republics is necessarily subject: but that want of unity, unhappily for the cause of mankind, becomes less remarkable as we advance; since, with the growing slavery of individual republics, their history, in proportion to its increasing unworthiness, is more easy, and, as far as the unities are concerned, more critically adapted to the purposes of the writer. In the early times embraced by this narrative, the Lombard republics and their generous struggle against *Frederic Barbarossa* excited our exclusive interest: but that brilliant flame of liberty was of short continuance. Already, at the commencement of the thirteenth century, we have seen it languish; and we are now arrived at an epoch in which it was completely extinguished. In the space of fourteen years, from 1250 to 1264, the lords *della Torre* and *Pelavicino* extended their dominion over almost all the cities of Lombardy; and the republican character had been annihilated even before the commencement of tyranny. M. SIMONDE has undertaken to write the history only of the free republics; and, as we proceed with him through different ages, every generation sweeps off some one of those nations which belonged to his subject. 'Thus the wind rolls on the masses of Lybian sands, and pushes them gradually towards Ægypt. Burning sand covers fields that were lately fertile; it besets Alexandria, drives before it the population, arts, and cultivation, and closes in upon the habitable land in a country which was once the garden of the universe.' The annalist will, it is true, have to speak of the lords *della Scala*, *Torre*, and *Visconti*, but only as they are connected with the few republics whose history are attached to his undertaking. The want of unity diminishes yet more as he advances. Arrived at the succeeding age, he finds the republican body composed of fewer members; and, far from being obliged to have recourse to some degree of artifice to make the history of five or six republics proceed together, he would not even have it in his power to separate them entirely.

A principal cause of Lombard degeneracy is to be traced to the virtues of *Martino della Torre*; virtues which first attracted and afterward enslaved their admirers: since, accustomed to the idea of hereditary rule in the descendants of this excellent prince, the people lost all energy of acting, and submitted with a deference easy and happy for themselves, but fatal to their posterity, to the government of a family. To this cause may be added the introduction of heavy cavalry, trained and inured from youth to submission, to danger, and to hardships beyond the endurance of popular and hasty levies. If Venice and Florence, the two greatest and most interesting states, preserved their independence inviolate, we must attribute the happy exemption to their peculiar situations. The steep heights of Etruria, inaccessible to cavalry, afforded an asylum for the freedom of its government; and, from the maritime position of Venice, the people of that city had less cause to apprehend a species of force which was rendered harmless by the peculiarity of their local advantages. — Having briefly traced the sources of that devastating slavery, which at almost the same point of time was diffused through Lombardy, to the dangerous ascendancy over their citizens that was gained by the virtues of some princes and the brilliant vices of others, and above all to the introduction of mercenary troops in the pay of the nobles, we forbear from fatiguing ourselves and the reader with a repetition of the names of those ambitious and bad men who in succession, under the name of princes, were the monsters, the *Eccelini* and the *Castrucci*, of their respective ages and countries.

> " *Fama di lor il mondo esser non lassa,*
> *Non raggionam di lor, ma guarda, e passa.*"

No two forms of government could be more essentially different than that of Florence and that of Venice. Both were indeed republics, but the constitution of Persia differs not much less from that of England than the governments of those two states from each other. It was in the year 1282 that the Florentines established that form of policy which they preserved to the period when their republic was enslaved, and have retained even in part to this day. The members of their magistracy were called priors of the arts; by which name it was their intention to imply that an assembly composed of the first citizens of every trade was the proper representative of the whole republic. At the first election, they did not admit indifferently all the trades to the prerogative of giving chiefs to the state: it was confined to three trades reputed most noble: but, at the second election, two months afterward, the number of priors was doubled.

All the executive power, and the right of representing the majesty of the state, were confided to the six priors: who were lodged in the same palace, and fed at the same table which was kept by the nation. In order, however, that public life might not too long divert merchants and men in trade from their own affairs, and give them leisure to meditate on ambitious schemes, each seignory was compelled at the end of two months to give place to a new election; and the entire government was thus changed six times in the year. A form of administration containing the two inherent faults of democracy in the excess, and of a mutability in its members too rapid to admit of their improvement in the art of governing, could have been little adapted to internal tranquillity. As each *rector* laid down his authority, he became subject to an investigation set on foot by the order of judges and notaries: but, whatever might be the credit of this order in deciding on elections, the corporation of *butchers* became the promoters and principals of all civil broils; and they are described as composed of *men of blood*, whom nothing terrified or subdued to compassion. Bereft of the example of conciliating and gentle manners, which in these ages seldom descended lower than the noblesse, by the expulsion of that order from the state, the Florentine character appears to have assumed (as far as such a climate would admit) somewhat of the vulgar and puritanical spirit which was the disgrace of Cromwell's time in our island. Still, the climate, the soil, and the natural frankness of the people, forbad that character to become permanent. A sky bright and warm, vallies teeming with the richest grain and watered by the most pellucid springs, hills and mountains clothed with vines and olive trees, inspiring the poet and the painter, and quarries inviting to the luxury of sculpture and architecture by the profusion of their marbles and fine stone, all prohibited the stagnation of elegant intellect, and awakened and directed the national energies.

The close of the thirteenth century was signalized by the election of *Peter Morone*, an obscure hermit, to the papal chair. The absolute unfitness of this good but weak and inexperienced man, for the office to which he was chosen, was the cause of his deposition, and ultimately led to the defeat of the ecclesiastical or Guelf party, and the transfer of the chair of St. Peter from Rome to Avignon. It is not our province to enter into these details; and, as we proceed, the history of Italy becomes more generally known. Suffice it to observe that, while the papal interest was thus sacrificed to the court of France, Florence was the focus of Ghibelline or anti-imperial power, and opposed the views of *Henry* VII., at the commencement of the fourteenth century, with a zeal that triumphed over the military force and pride of that sovereign.

> ' Unfortunately, among the public virtues which the Florentines owed to the form of their government, we must number those of a military kind. Mercenary soldiers were already generally employed all over Italy, distinguished by the name of Catalans; not because all of these mercenaries had formed a part of the old bands which had been reduced by *Frederic* of Sicily; a crowd of adventurers from Spain, France, and other parts, having connected themselves with these people, and exercised with them the lucrative trade of war. The brutal valour of these hired troops, who sold their blood to the highest bidder, and who were inaccessible to every sentiment of country or of liberty, had lessened in the eyes of the Italians the esteem due to true courage; and the Florentines regarded it as unreasonable that gentlemen, or men of intellect, should fight like those degraded beings who were trained like mastiffs to combat. Without pardoning cowardice, they attached no idea of shame to the inferiority of bravery or prowess; this principle they openly avowed; and they never harboured an idea of measuring themselves with a more heroic nation, unless under favour of a great superiority in number.'

Their war with *Henry* VII. was at once a proof of the above position, and of their political firmness and virtue, which made amends for their failure in valour. When apprized that *Henry* was collecting all his strength against them, they made no effort to divert the storm by negotiation, but, with the forces of a single city, opposed the acknowleged emperor of Germany and Italy: they calculated neither the dangers to which his displeasure or his power might expose them for the future, nor the immediate ruin of their fields. On the other hand, when, by the succour of their allies, they had assembled an army doubling that of their adversary, they yet hazarded not a battle, but shut themselves up within their ramparts, and practised no deception on themselves on the subject of their military courage. Foiled by their vigilance, their prudence, their delays, and all the obstacles invented by an ingenious but unwarlike enemy, the Emperor was compelled to retreat from their territory, humbled and exhausted.

We have now run through the larger portion of the æras that are happy in the memory of Italian independence. The death of *Ugolini*, brought on himself by his attempts on the liberties of Pisa, and the massacre in the south known by the name of the Sicilian Vespers, will, through all their horrors, be proofs that the Italians of former ages, from the north to the south, were the ardent and sincere friends to civil liberty, and to the freedom of their country from foreign interposition. If they have never yet enjoyed that happy order of domestic government, and if the foreigner has intruded on them systems and forms of polity degrading to their character, it has been owing to their divisions, and to the many interests of many states; which, if united by one common bond of union, would even now be found the most powerful bulwark against the oppressive unity of a nation that, even in its fall, retains the elements of future troubles and future hostility to Europe.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. IX. *Catechisme d'Économie Politique*, &c.; *i. e.* A Catechism of Political Economy, or familiar Instructions shewing the Manner in which Wealth is produced, distributed, and consumed; a Work founded on Facts, and useful to all the different Classes, as pointing out the Advantages which each Individual may derive from his Situation and his Talents. By JEAN BAPTISTE SAY, Author of a Treatise on Political Economy, &c. 8vo. Paris. 1815.

THIS well known French publicist, after having given to the world the best analysis that we have yet seen of Dr. Smith's celebrated work, and of which we have spoken which praise more than once, has lately undertaken to read lectures at Paris on the subject of political economy. The prevailing character of his countrymen offers no very flattering prospect of success to any author who requires the close application of their intellectual faculties, or attempts to recall them from their habitual frivolity: but, if solid views, conveyed in clear language, and occasionally enlivened by amusing and animated appeals, can prove effectual in gaining their attention to a serious discussion, M. SAY is as likely as any literary man whom we know to obtain a portion of success. He has evidently been indefatigable in his attempts to adapt his lessons to the comprehension of beginners in the study; first by adding to the late edition of his large work a short dictionary of the terms occuring in political economy, and now by giving the fundamental principles in the plain shape of question and answer. He here introduces a series of short dialogues on the nature of wealth, the formation of capital, the profits of industry, property public and private, the principles of money, regulations of commerce, &c. &c. A few passages will convey an idea of his plan, as well as of several of his views respecting national wealth:

'What do you understand by *Wealth?*

'Every thing that has value: gold, silver, land, merchandise.

'Are not gold and silver a species of wealth preferable to others?

'That species of wealth is preferable which has the greatest value. A hundred and ten crowns in corn are preferable to a hundred crowns in money.

'But, the value being equal, is not money better than merchandise?

'It is, in fact, commonly preferred to it.

'How happens it, then, in the case of the value being equal, that money is preferred?

'Because, when silver is once procured, the possessor has only one exchange to make, in order to obtain the articles of which he stands in need; while he who possesses any other commodity has two exchanges to make: he must first barter his goods for silver, and afterward his silver for goods.

'What do you mean by *Products?*

'I mean every thing to which men have succeeded in giving a value.

'How is value given to any thing?

'By giving it utility.

'I can comprehend how products alone constitute wealth; but utility does not seem to be the only cause of the value of products, since many articles have value but not utility, such as a ring on my finger, or an artificial flower.

'You do not perceive the utility of these products, because you give the name of useful only to that which is so in the eye of reason, whereas you are to understand by this word every thing that is adapted to satisfy the wants and desires of people constituted as we actually find them. Now our vanity and our passions appear to us sometimes wants as imperious as hunger. Every man is the proper judge of the importance of things to him, and of the need which he has for them; other persons can judge of them only by the price which he sets on an article. To give them value, therefore, we ought to be satisfied with giving them utility in the eyes of the consumer; this is called *making* or *creating* products.

'We can, then, create property or wealth?

'You may, no doubt.

'I thought that man could not create any thing?

'He cannot create matter; nor establish laws for the regulation of nature: but, with the matter already created, and by the aid of the laws of nature already established, he may give a value to certain things, and consequently make wealth or property out of them.

'What are the causes which augment or diminish the population of a country?

'Generally speaking, a country is more populous in proportion as it produces more value, or wealth, for its inhabitants, and less populous as it produces less wealth.

'Why do you not mention articles of food?

'Because there are articles which, without supplying food, are necessary to life, such as clothing and lodging; and because, with commodities not fit for food, we may procure those which are.

'What do you mean by *Colonies*?

'Establishments made by the inhabitants of one country in another country, where they expect to live more at their ease.

'What do you mean by colonies dependent on the mother-country?

'I mean those which are subject to the same government, and ruled by the laws which it imposes.

'What are the effects of this situation on the wealth of the mother-country and the colonies?

'The mother-country may oblige the colony to purchase from her every thing which it wants; and this monopoly, or exclusive privilege, enables the producers in the mother-country to make the planters pay more than the value for their goods.

'Then the mother-country gains more by the colony than if it was independent?

'Yes: but how much so ever the merchants of the mother-country sell too high, the consumers of the colony purchase as much too high. It is a value which is made to pass from the purse of one individual into that of another, both being citizens or subjects of the same country. This value appears considerable in the hands of those who gain it, because they are few in number; and insignificant in the hands of those who pay it, because it is distributed among many: but the loss to the colony is not the less real on that account.

'Are not the planters indemnified in another way for the usurious profits extorted from them?

'They extort, in their turn, an usurious profit from the consumers in the mother-country; the latter not being allowed to purchase colonial produce except from their own colonies. On both sides, it is a combination among the producers against the consumers.

'Are there not still other disadvantages attached to dependent colonies?

'Their administration is expensive, and liable to abuses, because it is superintended from too great a distance, and the mother-country is obliged to maintain garrisons, fleets, and armies, to keep the colonies in obedience, or to defend them. Now these *expences* augment the burdens both of the colonies and of the mother-country; not to speak of the wars by which such a system is always accompanied.

'Do these mischiefs take place when the colonies are independent?

'No. The colonists then establish among themselves a government which costs them very little: they cost nothing to the mother-country; and both enjoy those advantages which two civilized nations derive from their mutual communication.'

We cannot but express our cordial wishes for the success of M. SAY, or of any person who endeavours, like him, to point out to the public the important truths that they may acquire property without deducting it from the stock of a neighbouring nation, and preserve their independence without resorting to the alternative of war.

ART. X. *Tables Astronomiques*, &c.; *i. e.* Astronomical Tables, published by the Board of Longitude in France. Tables of the Moon. By M. BURCKHARDT. 4to. pp. 88. Paris. Imported by De Conchy. Price 16s. sewed.

THE Memoirs of the Institute contain many laborious investigations of this author, to which we have had occasion frequently to call the attention of our readers; and he deserves to be considered as one of the most indefatigable astronomical observers and calculators of these times. He informs us that the tables now published have been constructed with the aid of more than four thousand observations, and were presented both to the Institute and the Board of Longitude in December 1811: when the latter body ordered a committee, composed of Messrs. *Laplace*, *Delambre*, *Bouvard*, *Arago*, and *Poisson*, to compare them with the tables of M. *Bürg*, in order to decide which should be adopted by the calculators of the *Connaissance des Tems*. For this purpose, the members of the committee chose a great number of observations made in various parts of the lunar orbit, with which both tables were compared, and the errors of each determined. It then remained to adopt some indisputable principle, according to which the preference should be given. This at first sight might appear to be to fix on that set, of which the sum of the errors was the least: but a little reflection will correct this erroneous conclusion. M. *Laplace* decided, by means of the calculus of probabilities, that those tables in which the sum of the *squares* of the errors was the least ought to be preferred; and this criterion was much in favour of M. BURCKHARDT, who therefore gained the preference.

It is not, however, the accuracy of these tables that constitutes their only merit; the arrangement being more convenient, and the operations performed by them more concise and simple. The following abstract from the introduction will point out their peculiarities in this respect:

'My tables (says the author) differ from the common planetary tables only in this circumstance, that we correct all the arguments, beginning with that of the evection, by adding to it the sum of all the preceding equations; it is only the last argument, viz. the twelfth of the latitude, which has not need of this correction. It will be convenient, therefore, to write the sum of these arguments under the sum of the preceding equations, before we add together the epochs and the movements for the days and hours, in order that one addition may be sufficient.

'When we have obtained the sum of all the equations comprizing the variation, we add it to the sum of the mean longitude of the moon; which longitude, corrected, is to be added to the supplement of the node; and this will give the true distance of the moon from the node, or the first argument of the latitude, which is at the same time that of the reduction. Find this reduction, add it to the correct longitude of the moon, and it will give the true place of the moon in the ecliptic, counted from the mean equinox.

'The sum of all the equations being expressed in degrees, it must be converted into decimal parts of the periphery, before we add it to the arguments of the latitude, excepting always the last or twelfth argument. Table 24. is intended to facilitate this conversion.

'The equations of the longitude, of the latitude, and of the parallax, have been rendered always positive: but those of the horary motion preserve their natural signs. These tables give only the quantity which corresponds to the mean horary change of each argument; and for the correct argument we must multiply it by the following factor; viz.

$$\frac{\text{true motion of the argument}}{\text{mean motion of the argument}} = \frac{\text{mean motion of argu.} + \text{sum of preceding equations}}{\text{mean motion of the argument.}}$$

'This factor varies only by the sum of the preceding equations, and we take it in the subsidiary table which has this sum for argument. In order to facilitate the multiplication, the logarithm of the factor and the logarithm of each term of the table are given: but when the equation is very small it is more commodious not to employ logarithms; and, finally, I have adopted the method of giving the horary motion in latitude instead of that of the polar distance.'

Such is the author's description of his tables, which is doubtless more intelligible when read with a reference to an example worked out at full length: but the above will be sufficient to indicate, to any person conversant with these operations, the difference between the tables respectively of *MM.* Burckhardt, *Bürg*, and *Mayer*.

Art. XI. *Décadence de l'Angleterre,* &c.; *i. e.* The Decline of England, or a Letter from an Englishman to the Right Honourable the Earl of Liverpool, Prime Minister and Privy Counsellor to His Britannic Majesty, translated into French, with the English on the opposite Page, from the tenth London Edition (!!!) : with Notes by the Translator, and curious Opinions of several Englishmen on the present State of Trade, Finances, and the general Decline of their Country. 8vo. pp. 149. Paris. 1816.

The tract which bears this high-sounding title has been much noticed in the French news-papers, under the impression that it would be some comfort to the inhabitants of that country to find, in their day of trial, that their neighbours were as little prosperous as themselves. The writer, Mr. Schultes, or, as the French will have it, Sir Henry Schultes, is little known to the public, and has not, we believe, attempted much beyond such humble topics as an account of our fisheries, and a translation of the rules followed by the Dutch in that branch of their nautical industry. (See Rev. Vol. lxxii. p. 100.) He now, however, takes a bolder flight, and ventures to address our *premier* on subjects involving the vital interests of the empire.

After some general recommendations of the importance of wise laws and an upright administration of justice, Mr. Schultes very kindly takes it for granted that we have attained the meridian of our political splendour, and are now verging to decay. He proceeds to justify this palatable opinion by asserting that our national debt amounts to 900 millions; that the list of our poor is wonderfully increased; and that the profits of our foreign trade bear no proportion to the magnitude of our burdens. He regrets the disappearance of our coin, and makes a number of common-place objections to the use of paper. All this, he adds, is very different from the good old times, when our debt was trifling, our growth of corn more than sufficient, and the property-tax neither known nor apprehended. — The French translator, or editor, has swelled the book with notes of wonderous extent, and, we may add, of wonderous inaccuracy. We cannot be expected to listen with much gravity to a Parisian monitor when he undertakes (note, p. 68.) to read us a lecture on the deficient morality of the metropolis, or, as Mr. Schultes insists, of the whole kingdom; and we may be pardoned for entertaining little dread of attacks from 'the whole aggregate number of the unemployed poor and profligate,' under any combination of circumstances of which the present times afford a prospect. We have not room for farther remarks, and the work does not deserve them.

I N D E X

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